BUSINESS EDUCATION forum

MARCH 1960 VOL. 14, NO. 6
UNITED BUSINESS EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

A DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

BUSINESS EDUCATION forum

March 1960 Volume 14, Number 6

BASIC BUSINESS FORUM

Featuring: *Page*

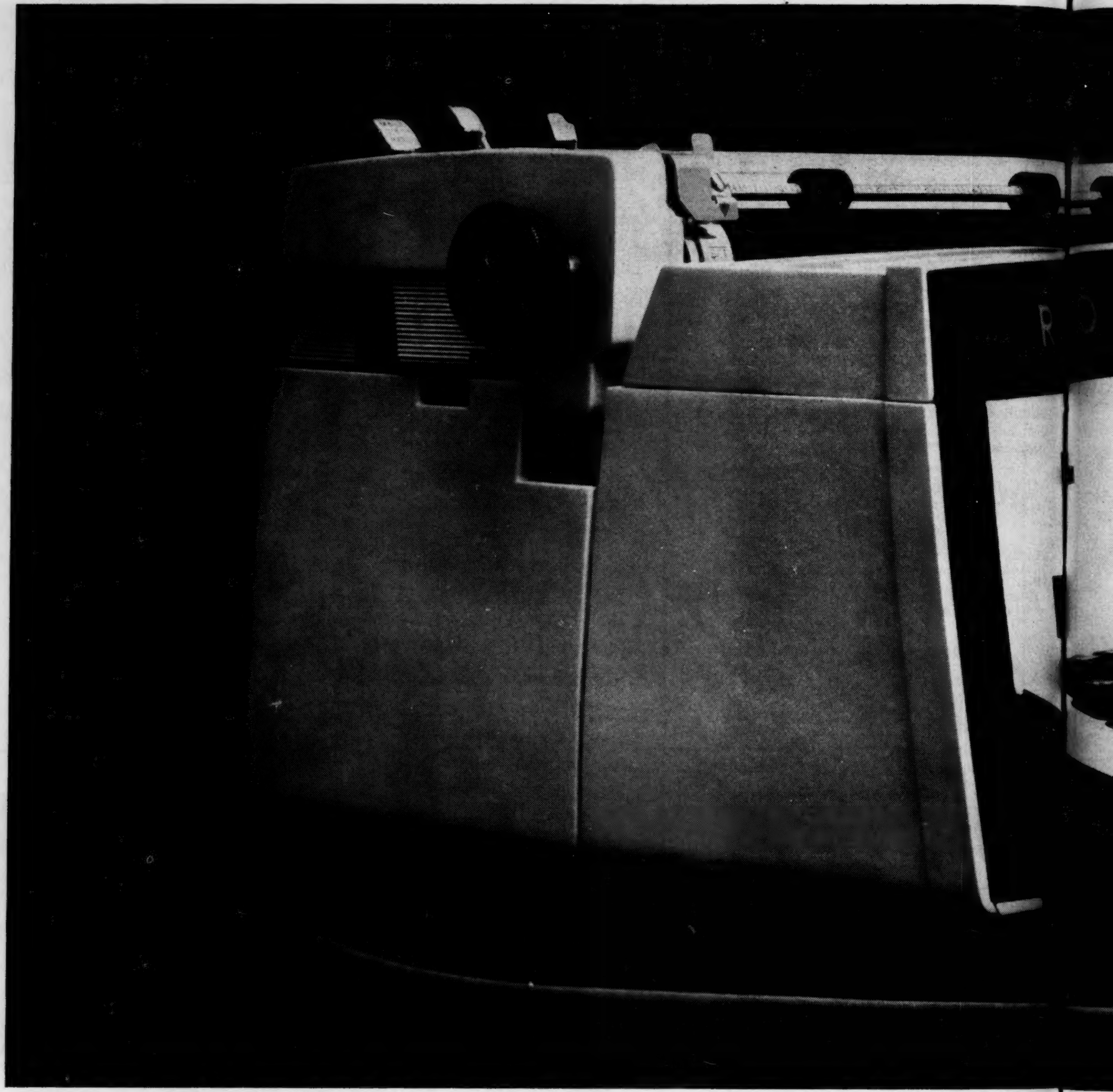
UNITED SERVICES FORUM

THE UBEA FORUM

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

The United Business Education Association is the amalgamation of the Department of Business Education of the National Education Association and the National Council for Business Education. The Department of Business Education was founded July 12, 1892, and the National Council in 1933. The merger of the two organizations took place in Buffalo, New York, on July 1, 1946. BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM was published under the title UBEA FORUM from March 1947 through May 1949. A Volume Index to BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM is published annually in the May issue for member-subscribers. The contents are indexed in BUSINESS EDUCATION INDEX and in THE EDUCATION INDEX. The UBEA does not assume responsibility for the points of view or opinions of the contributors to BUSINESS EDCATION FORUM unless such statements have been established by a resolution of the Association.

BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM is published monthly except June, July, August, and September by the United Business Education Association, a Department of the National Education Association of the United States (also publisher of THE NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY). Executive, editorial, and advertising headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Membership in the Association is $5 a year, $3.50 of which is for a year's subscription to the FORUM and 50 cents is for membership privileges in unified regional associations. Five dollars a year to institutions and nonmembers. Single copy $1. Checks should be drawn payable to United Business Education Association and mailed to the UBEA Executive Director, Hollis Guy, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Four weeks' notice is required for a change of address. In ordering a change, please give both new and old address as printed on the wrapper. Second class postage paid at Washington, D. C., and at additional mailing offices.



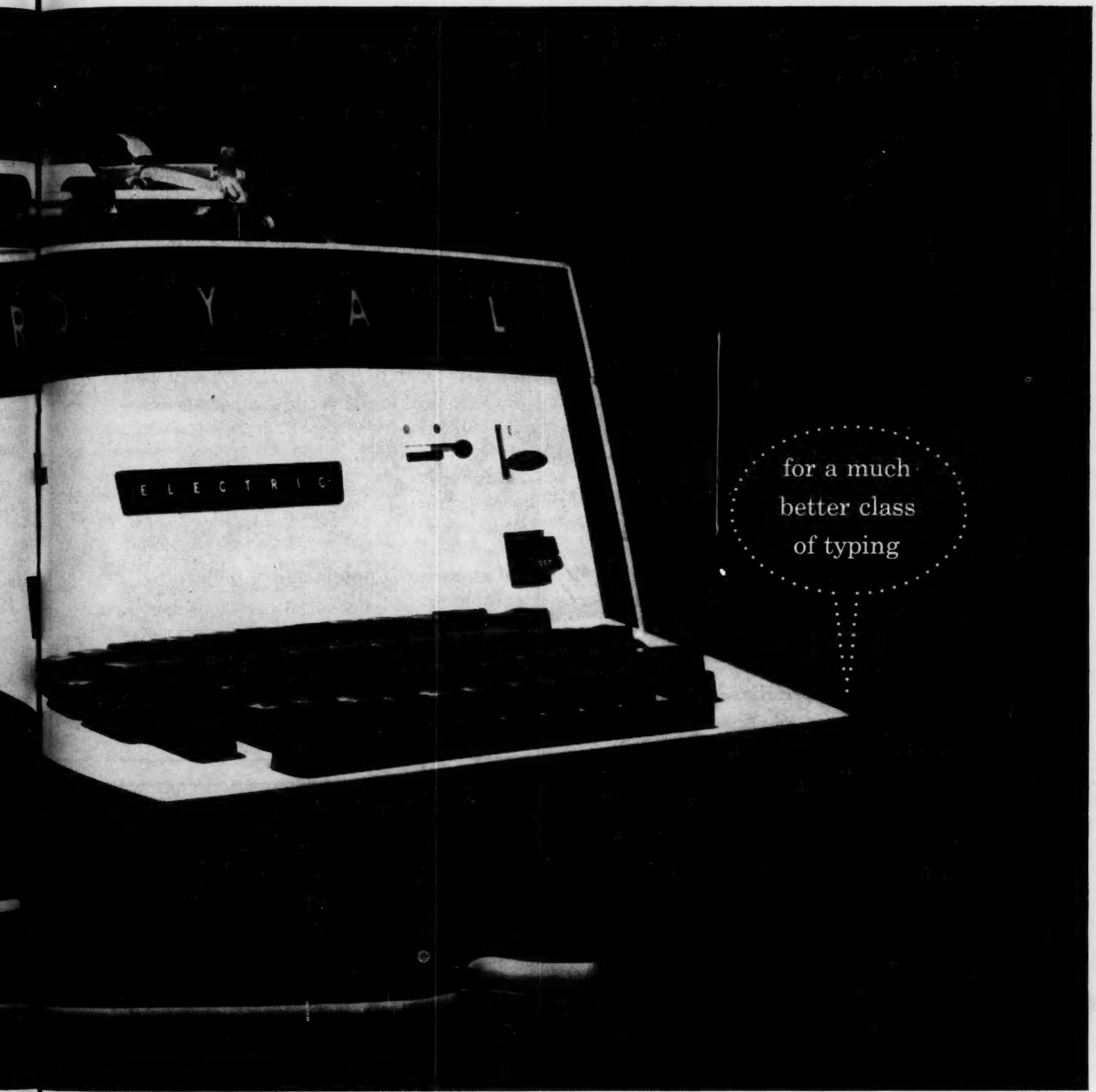
Introducing the new R

Here's the greatest teaching typewriter you've ever seen . . . the new Royal Electric . . . ready just in time for your Spring buying plans.

From the first, beginners make encouraging progress and enjoy a feeling of satisfaction. Smooth electrical operation of the new Royal Electric simplifies motions so that students concentrate at once on the basic problem—learning to type.

But the new Royal Electric is much more than a beginner's typewriter. It's also the machine for your advanced classes, for the trend to electrics evident in offices everywhere. For example, it's the only electric that has both carbon and fabric ribbons as standard equipment, at no extra cost.

These
feature
Magic
new R
...with
Mak
tative


ROYAL
ELECTRIC
for a much better class of typing

Improved Methodology In Basic Business Education

The FORUM

The area of basic business and economic education was foremost in the minds of the persons participating in the recent UBEA-NEA Conference on Business Education for the Academically Talented Student. Among the fundamental understandings visualized for youth by the participants in this conference were that he might acquire those ideas and concepts fundamental to understanding the American economic way of life, the goals of government, the distribution of income including wages, the basic factors influencing fiscal policy, the role of capital in a free enterprise society, labor and management problems, and the problems of agriculture and foreign trade.

For a student to develop these fundamental understandings, he needs intensive work in the area of developing the power to think through problems; he needs help in the development of concepts; and he needs to develop the capability of putting into practice the information he learns. The contributors to the Feature Section in this issue of the FORUM (pages 9-19) provide some down-to-earth ideas for the teacher of basic business subjects in employing methods to achieve these results.

The presentation of work-experience as a vital link in the adequate preparation of a business teacher opens the Services Section (pages 21-38). Other outstanding items in the section are a background on symbol shorthand systems, proper use of materials in typewriting, review in bookkeeping, development of personal traits, special language work for salespeople, and the counseling of business students.

There are, as usual, so many activities to be reported for UBEA and the regional and state affiliated associations that all items had to be condensed in the In Action Section (pages 39-46). You will, however, want to meet via photographs your UBEA Executive Board members. They represent the "top" in business education personnel across the country—tops in many ways but particularly tops with UBEA because of the many hours of time and effort they spend for the betterment of the profession and the Association.—*D.C.C.*

Editor: Basic Business Forum
FLOYD L. CRANK
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

BUSINESS TEACHERS grow each year in an understanding of the teaching and learning processes and they find new and more enlightened ways of reaching instructional goals. Since improvement is a necessary and sought-after goal of business teachers, we must constantly search for better methods and techniques. In general, methods and techniques can be said to be "improved" when they make greater contributions to the total education of youth through the acceleration of understandings and learning and the development of higher levels of attitudes and appreciations.

Basic business teachers have a ready-made opportunity to make a genuine contribution to the general education of students. One of the most important goals—if not *the* most important—of education is to develop in students the ability to think and to use rational judgments in making decisions and solving problems. The subject matter that is used in teaching students to think may be material in business, science, literature, social studies, or almost any other area of learning. Actually, the content is not nearly so important as the processes that are developed. The techniques that help students learn to think and to solve problems are identical regardless of the subject. It is extremely important to remember that the mere learning of subject matter is no guarantee that students are learning to think. In the main, factual information must be used to carry learners through the development of understandings and attitudes and thus develop the skills of critical thinking and problem solving. A body of information must be thought of as a vehicle for going somewhere rather than as an end to learning. By using subject matter to teach students to think, basic business teachers can make a real contribution to general education.

The learning process can be accelerated with the development of insight and understanding which lead directly to concept formation. Understanding occurs when students gain insight into a process that is involved in the topic being discussed. Again, factual information is used to provide the basic material from which relationships (insight) are identified. High-level concept formation is not possible unless understandings and attitudes are developed. Understandings cannot be developed unless the methods and techniques used in the classroom enable the students to gain insight into processes, see relationships of the various aspects of subject matter, draw conclusions on the basis of the subject matter presented, or generalize the factual information that is discussed. The level of understanding will depend greatly on how thoroughly the teacher explores the possible insights, relationships, conclusions, and generalizations. One of the most common mistakes made by teachers is failure to "nail down" the understanding. This "nailing down" procedure probably is best accomplished by asking students to verbalize the understanding. Students need help in seeing relationships and drawing conclusions.

Basic business teachers improve their teaching when they find methods and techniques of teaching for higher level outcomes. When the purpose of learning and teaching is to develop concepts, attitudes, and understandings and when subject matter is used as a means of developing the critical thinking and problem solving skills involved in the attainment of these objectives, basic business teaching unquestionably will be improved. Teachers must keep in mind, however, that what the subject matter *does* for the learner is the most important consideration in education. No subject matter—in whatever discipline it may be shrouded—can claim inherent values to a learner. Information is important only if it is used in the development of desirable concepts and skills that are necessary for successful living.

—FLOYD L. CRANK, *Issue Editor*


Education and the Creative Arts
AASA
NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY
NEWS SERVICE
THE
LINCOLN HIGH
YEARBOOK
BRIAR PATCH
NEWSLETTER

Can Basic Business Students Be Taught To Think?

by **VERNON A. MUSSELMAN**
University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky

"They say that if a check is lost anyone who finds it can cash it."

"I've heard that if you don't leave your money invested at least a year you don't receive any interest."

These are typical of the comments that can be heard in the classroom almost any day in the week. Money invested where? and in what? It makes a difference whether we are talking about cashing a United States Savings Bond, or depositing money at interest in postal savings or a savings and loan association. Most students are accustomed to speaking and drawing conclusions based on *partial* information—and sometimes incorrect information. In basic business classes we have many opportunities to help students learn to get all the information and to use facts instead of fallacies. No other classes surpass those in basic business in opportunities to help students learn to think.

The Setting

Every grouping of objectives of secondary education includes that of helping youth learn to think. It was one of the "fundamental processes" or basic skills objectives in the Educational Policies Commission[1] Report on the seven cardinal principles of education, published in 1918. And again in 1952, this same Commission, in listing the "Ten Imperative Needs" of youth, included "how to think and communicate clearly."

The very fact that we cannot provide in school all the experiences that young people will need demands that they learn how to meet and solve new problems as they come to grips with them. We teachers of basic business subjects must include this as one of our chief aims.

What is the teacher's role in helping students learn to think? It would appear that his chief functions are to (a) develop a climate conducive to problem solving, and (b) develop problem situations for each topic to be studied.

Developing the Climate. Students convene in our basic business classrooms from literally "everywhere." They do not automatically shift mental gears the moment they enter our classes. They do not voluntarily and immediately give their attention to the subject at hand. To take their attention away from the countless things on their minds and orient them to their study in a basic business class is the task of the teacher of that class.

It is our responsibility to bring their attention to the topic under consideration and interest them in it. This may be done in many ways: by asking questions; by reviewing yesterday's discussion; by explaining a poster or bulletin board exhibit; or by using a filmstrip, a demonstration, or dramatic skit. Each teacher must plan his use of the particular method that best fits the situation on any given day.

Developing Problem Situations. Good textbooks provide review questions that test the student's mastery of the textbook discussion. In addition, discussion questions force the students beyond the memorization of factual information. Activities or projects are also provided to take the students beyond the four walls of the classroom and reach out into the community.

Teachers should take care to see that all of these teaching helps are utilized. In addition, they should provide other problem situations designed to help students learn to think. Some of these involve the use of the textbook, others require the preparation of supplementary exercises, and still others relate to testing procedures.

Using Textbook Activities. We must never assume that all of our students have learned how to use the textbook effectively, or to follow instructions. For example, suppose that tomorrow you select a given topic discussed rather fully in the textbook. In class, ask your students

[1]The Educational Policies Commission is a commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators.

to read that discussion and select the significant ideas in it.

You will be amazed at the number of students who will *summarize* the entire passage, or write out practically everything in it. Did they follow instructions? Did they really understand what you wanted? Do they know how to distinguish the important ideas from the others? Those who fail to do what you asked of them (and it may be a majority of the class) need some instruction in how to think—for to evaluate all ideas and select the significant ones requires thinking. You will need to guide them, showing them how this is done and follow up this activity with later practice sessions.

Again, ask your students which of the new facts they learned "today" is of greatest value to them. Have them write their answers on paper, then after they have done so, ask them to explain *why* it is so valuable. You will find that some will merely write down the first thing that comes to their minds. To be able to justify their choices requires reflective thinking—evaluation and comparison of the relative merits of different facts and their applications in their own experiences. The "proof of the pudding" here lies in the students' abilities to justify their choices.

Another textbook exercise is that of asking students to *outline* a portion of the textbook showing the main divisions and their subdivisions. This again requires evaluation and judgment, as well as interpretation of centered headings and minor headings. The finished outline shows relationships—thinking is required to determine which points are subordinate to those of broader scope.

The *drawing of conclusions* is another thought activity that requires the evaluation of alternatives and the making of comparisons. Several content sections of basic business classes are ideally suited to this type of activity. Wise buymanship and the interrelationships between business and government are excellent examples. Here the students must go beyond the memorization of the factual material given in the textbook. They must think in order to weigh alternatives and reach conclusions.

Using Supplementary Exercises. For an example, let us return to the topic of "interest on investments" mentioned at the beginning of this article. A teacher might bring to class advertisements from the local newspaper. One advertisement says that its sponsor pays interest on savings of, say, 3 percent. Other advertisements in the same paper promise interest at 4 and at 5 percent. The teacher would display the advertisements and ask class members why there is such a difference in the interest rates paid. This requires thinking and application of what they already know about earning interest. The class discussion should reveal a need to obtain additional facts. Visits to these businesses would enable students to learn the conditions governing the different savings plans. A comparison of details should show why one firm pays more than another.

Application of these facts to an individual's situation requires further thinking because students' circumstances vary. Some may find that the higher rate plans suit their needs best; whereas, for others, they may need to keep their savings quite liquid and thus be forced to choose an investment that pays a lesser return.

When studying insurance, class members may be asked to interview their neighbors, asking them what types of insurance policies they prefer and why. Different persons will prefer various types to meet specific needs. Students must be taught to test the soundness of the information they assemble. Just because a person gives an explanation that may sound plausible does not within itself make it so. The textbook will no doubt explain the circumstances under which the various types of policies are desirable. Students should be taught to weigh the replies they received in their interviews in terms of the explanations given in the textbook.

The planning of a class trip forces the students beyond the textbook. The material given there may serve as a guide, but the circumstances surrounding "our trip" do not conform to any preconceived pattern. We must make adaptations and meet problems as they arrive. Roland Johnson has written an excellent description of the problems his class faced when planning an extensive field trip. A study of this report clearly shows that those students did learn to think and to solve problems.[2]

Using Subjective Tests. Although objective tests can be made to check rationalizations, they are usually of the recall type. Subjective tests, however, can easily be designed to emphasize rationalization. Items that call for thinking may be phrased in different ways. The following are given as examples of several different types:

1. *Describe* briefly the various ways that our American business system serves the people of the United States.
2. *Explain* the role of a "good citizen" in our free-enterprise business system.
3. *List* the advantages, disadvantages, and precautions involved in buying goods on credit.
4. *Compare* the proprietorship, partnership, and corporation forms of business organization, showing the relative strengths and weaknesses of each.
5. Principles may be stated and the students asked to indicate how they may be *applied* in real life situations.
6. Case problems may be given, and the students asked to *interpret* or *draw conclusions.*

Basic business teachers should give their students practice with these types of thought-provoking questions and projects. These activities, you will note, do not give students a free rein to ramble, saying much about nothing. The teacher can (and should) write out the significant items that should be included in each question, and use this as a check list against which the answers are evaluated.

[2]Johnson, Roland. "A Meaningful Experience in a General Business Class." *The Balance Sheet* 38: 8-9; September 1956.

Teaching Problem Solving Procedures. It was mentioned earlier that schools cannot bring their students face to face with all the types of experiences they will meet in life. Therefore, we must teach boys and girls problem solving procedures so that they will be able to adapt to new situations.

Space limitations do not permit here a detailed discussion of the problem solving process. However, let us review the steps involved:

1. Recognize the problem and get it clearly in mind
2. Determine what you already know about it
3. Decide what new knowledge is needed to solve it
4. Find relationships of all factors to one another and to the problem
5. Seek plausible solutions
6. Test the solutions, choosing the one or ones that seem best for you.

Basic business teachers must teach the scientific method to their students and provide practice for them in using it. If they master the technique, they will know how to attack completely new problems with which they are confronted.

Teaching Generalization and Application. One thing so frequently overlooked, even by good teachers, is that we must *apply* what we learn. What value is there in learning that a good investment must be safe, yield a high return, and be available when needed, if this is only memorized or learned theoretically? If we expect students to make use of this knowledge, we must lead them to apply it to everyday situations.

Thorndike, in his "theory of identical elements" stated that one experience can be transferred only to *similar situations* where some of the elements of the first experience are applicable. Judd, in his "theory of generalization" said that transfer takes place to the extent that one *generalizes his experience*—applies it to as many situations as possible in order to understand its application to those situations.

Our own teaching experience surely bears this out. Its significance lies in the fact that application of facts must be taught as well as the facts themselves. Students must be taught to look for, and find, identical or similar elements in two or more situations. Both facts and principles must be presented in relation to as many important situations in daily life as possible. These things are not done automatically. It is the teacher's responsibility to provide the practice necessary to enable students to master the process. Yes, basic business students can be taught to think, if teachers make a sincere effort to provide problem-solving situations for them.

Teaching for Understandings in Basic Business

by **RUTH B. WOOLSCHLAGER**
University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, North Dakota

No high school student ever develops "understanding" by just reading a textbook and filling in workbook pages. The student may gain certain factual information through this process but seldom ties it together or puts it to work for him in his everyday living.

To teach for understanding, a teacher must seek the answers to the following questions:

1. What is an understanding?
2. What teaching methods, techniques, and procedures can I use to promote greater understanding on the part of the students?
3. Am I teaching for understandings?

No matter how long the teacher has taught, nor how satisfied he is with his teaching results, he must ask these questions each day of each year.

Understanding has been defined as the intellectual power of a person to form reasoned judgments, as the capability of comprehending and judging, and as the power to render experience intelligible by bringing perceived particulars under appropriate concepts. It is plain from these statements that there must be certain factual material learned before understanding is achieved. Let it never be thought, however, that the acquisition of subject matter knowledge is the major goal in basic business. Only when factual information is coupled with insight into real living situations does true understanding result.

The techniques which aid in this process are many and varied. First, students should read widely on a given subject. This gives them more than a restricted view of

Role playing can be extremely graphic and exciting for ninth-grade students.

one textbook. Second, there should be ample time for worthwhile class discussions. Third, with each topic, certain "group process" procedures can be utilized.

For example, in studying automobile insurance, role playing can be extremely graphic and exciting for ninth-grade students. Let one drive a car (on the chalkboard) into another car (still on the chalkboard). Then, as the two drivers proceed to tell each other off, the class can be checking to see if all the information needed is obtained by each party involved in an accident. Another student can serve as a policeman, and his handling of the situation can help to develop a proper attitude toward a police officer as a protector of society. As the class discusses this episode, it becomes very clear to them that a study of textbook information relative to insurance is necessary and valuable. Later, after the various processes have been taught, a different type of auto accident situation might be role-played, followed by another critique. It will be surprising how much better the second attempt will be. Most important, however, will be the reaction of these students if and when they are in a real accident. They will remember what to do because the material was made a natural part of their behavior patterns through role-playing situations. They have developed insight.

Another example, taken from the content covered by any textbook in general business, can be based on a person checking in at a hotel or motel. One person can play the role of the desk clerk, another the guest checking in. For the students who never have stayed in a hotel, this graphic portrayal is worth more than a thousand words. This first situation serves as a pretest; then after there has been some study on checking-in routines, the roles can be reassigned and again great improvement will be noted. No outside preparation is necessary for this type of role playing; in fact, it is better to choose students just prior to the time they are to play the roles.

Another form of socio-drama which results in improved understanding of a more difficult process is seen in the business law class when the students produce a mock trial. Here, roles will have to be prepared and studied, perhaps even rehearsed once before the production. However, this is time well spent because the students must be familiar with court procedure before real understanding comes from the study of consumer law.

The flannel board can be used to bring about understanding in the basic business class. Perhaps the best example is the situation used by a student teacher a few years ago when teaching the clearing house system of handling checks. The class was below average in intelligence. They had read and reread the textbook material and recited on it in class, all to no avail. Not one student could yet tell the teacher what happened to a check when it was presented as payment. No one had developed an understanding of the procedure. The student teacher, in consultation with her supervising teacher, decided to develop a flannel board story covering check transferral procedures. After each student in class (on different days) had had the opportunity of placing on the flannel board in the proper sequence the cut-outs of a person, two or three banks, and several checks, along with arrows indicating direction of movement, every person in that class could explain the procedure of paying by check. In testing on this unit, the teacher asked the students to describe this process and every student reproduced the same diagram on his test paper that had been done on the flannel board! Insight had been developed.

Another flannel board device which facilitates understanding in a business management or general business class is the National Association of Manufacturers material which deals with business organization and functions of business enterprise. This is a difficult topic for high school students to perceive; without a graphic method of portrayal it is almost impossible to stimulate discussion or thinking. As part of the NAM package there is a folding flannel board with several different colored card sequences prepared to adhere to the board to illustrate how business operates. Again, the students can assist or take turns in actually placing the cards on the flannel board. The work of the teacher in such a unit goes far beyond the traditional telling of the "advantages and disadvantages" of the sole proprietorship, partnership, and corporation. Now the aim becomes a developmental one—with the class and the teacher working together to acquire knowledge of the pros and cons of the various types of business ownership. Certainly, an understanding of how business operates is vital to all further learning in business education.

Ordinarily, student activity involved in learning will make that learning more meaningful. Many teachers have discovered that such activity need not always come from class members. Sometimes other students brought into class to do certain demonstrations or experiments will generate interest. For example, in an exploratory course at the eighth grade level, it is very effective to bring in a couple of typewriting students and let them demonstrate their skill—perhaps one in personal typewriting and one from the vocational class. The shorthand student who comes in and can verbally transcribe his dictation taken in front of the class creates quite an impression. Such devices "sell" high school business courses because they promote understanding of what can be achieved in such courses.

A Vocations Unit

A type of guest speaker popular in business classes is the graduate who is a freshman in college or a secretary on her first job. A vocations unit provides the setting for such speakers. Their proximity to the high school situation gives them appeal to eighth or ninth grade students, and what they say is taken seriously.

Projects also promote understanding in this unit. Each student can choose one or two vocations to investi-

In order for homework to be meaningful, the class session must lead into it.

gate and combine his information with that of others in the class who are interested in the same occupations. These people can read and investigate separately and then pool their information for one report. Each small group might produce a booklet or a simple statement concerning the opportunities and requirements of their particular line of work. All the group reports can then be put together in a large composite report with an attractive cover. Each group can acquaint the other members of the class with their findings through oral reports. It follows that every student will be learning from his classmates; new interests will be awakened as he hears about different vocations. This is a unit which would be taught at the acquaintanceship level, yet out of it can come many understandings very helpful to youngsters in planning their high school programs or their careers. They will change their minds about their future plans many times before they finish high school, but if the learning from this unit has inspired thinking and further investigation it will have been successful.

Guidelines for Group Work

Projects as devices to promote understanding are excellent if not overdone. The same can be said of committee work or of any work done in small groups. Units of study based on facts somewhat familiar to the students lend themselves well to this method of teaching. For example, the topic of transportation can be divided into three or four parts, each in the hands of a small group. The teacher should plan carefully, provide a study guide for each group and have materials easily accessible. Enough time must be allowed for group reports so that all members of the class can be oriented to every phase of the topic. The teacher will need to be prepared to join in the group reports, either adding or correcting facts as the case may be. Of course, the ultimate success of any of these techniques is dependent on the planning and care in organizing on the part of the teacher. A permissive atmosphere is important, yet a good working situation must be maintained at all times. The teacher is likely to be the busiest person in the group. It is important that he visit each small group, guiding library study and other investigation by suggesting sources and materials. Everyone learns from each other; through interaction, the personalities of individuals in the group are melded into a group personality in terms of the issues being studied. Out of this process come insights and understandings not possible through isolated individual effort.

Understanding Taxes

Any work of a bookkeeping or recordkeeping nature requires rational and logical thinking. Memory work is a waste of time. In teaching taxes, let the students fill out the United States Treasury income tax forms which are available free of charge for this purpose. Set up a typical case for the community—typical in terms of amount of income and expenditures. Then let the students work out the income tax forms—the farm boys and girls work on farm returns and the other students use the general form. Later, compare figures and discuss the reasons why some were right and others wrong. A study of the history and purpose of taxes is necessary for background knowledge. A better understanding of the whole tax structure can be acquired if the teacher takes advantage of the opportunity to go beyond personal income tax to real estate taxes (using local rates), sales taxes, and finally into another type of payroll deduction—social security. Taxation is a topic which will bring about a great amount of discussion which, if the teacher can back it up with meaningful facts and figures, will probably be the most useful device for developing understandings. That students learn by doing is surely true, but unless the doing is paired with discussion of the "why's" it is likely to result in empty knowledge.

Student participation is a natural for a course in consumer education. In an introductory lesson on wise buymanship, for instance, the purposes of labels should be explored. In considering the purposes, let the students read the information contained on the labels as they show them to the group. This first lesson can well be based on labels supplied by the teacher to illustrate the use of good or poor product description, supply directions for use of the product, demonstrate attractive use of color, illustrate the different seals of approval, and possibly show the "fluff" in advertising. The next day the students should bring their own labels and rate them. In this kind of lesson, teacher telling can be combined with student activity resulting in understanding.

Is Homework Helpful?

A telling measure of teaching purpose is to examine the amount of homework assigned and the way it is given. Homework can be just busy work—drudgery for students. One student has said that the only real difference in schools since Sputnik is that twice as much homework is now given. In other words teaching has "increased," not improved. Instead of 10 problems, 20 are assigned. The question is whether more learning results, especially if an inadequate explanation of how to do the work is given by the teacher. In order for homework to be meaningful, the class session must lead into it. Then the actual performance of the work will be interesting for the students. If the assignment is discussed in class when completed, or if the teacher places pertinent comments on each paper, the students feel it is important and it becomes an integral phase of their learning effort. Out of it comes understanding, rather than senseless repetition. This is particularly true if homework is given as a part of a teaching unit, rather than in isolated daily assignments. If, in a unit of study in advertising, the assignment is to visit certain stores and to describe and evaluate the effectiveness of the window displays, it becomes more interesting than simply writing a list of

Less time should be spent in correcting assignments than in planning them.

display principles. This latter assignment could be very beneficial, however, after the examination of store windows. Because of the active experience of viewing the actual effect of window arrangements, this unit takes on significance for the student as he launches into a study of *how* a desirable display effect is created.

To plan and execute a homework assignment which will result in greater understanding for students usually involves as much work on the part of the teacher as for the students. Less time should be spent in correcting assignments than in planning them.

Testing for Understanding

The most nearly reliable means of measuring individual understanding is testing. The method of testing can result in a strengthening of student understanding, or it can discourage him by placing too much emphasis on unrelated facts.

Relying too heavily on objective tests should be avoided, as such tests usually measure only factual knowledge. If based on the textbook, they serve to alert the student to the most important bits of information. This type of test can be desirable at the beginning of a unit of instruction or even at midpoint, because they tell the teacher and the student whether he has a grasp of the facts which are his tools for understanding. The culmination of measurement comes, however, when the student is required to use these tools in practical application or problem analysis. This type of test will simulate for the student putting his knowledge into practice in a life situation of his own.

An evaluation of the test results with the student is the logical next step. If there appear to be any voids in a student's understandings, such gaps can be filled in by reteaching and retesting.

In Conclusion

To achieve desired understandings, all teaching must be oriented toward understanding. The ability to perceive or analyze a situation in real life does not come from memorized factual minutia. It comes from a concerted effort on the part of the teacher to channel learned information toward its eventual use.

Techniques chosen by the teacher must encourage the students to use their information in a problem-solving manner, never allowing it to become dormant. Because of the interrelationship of all units in basic business, there is great opportunity for students to tie together the connecting strands. Through teaching for understanding, students can form the habit of using factual information at hand to solve new problems as they arise in later life. If they not only learn but understand, their study in these courses will then have real and lasting meaning.

Developing Concepts in Basic Business

by **TED J. BODUCH**

J. Sterling Morton Township High School, West Berwyn, Illinois

The comprehension and retention of concepts and understandings in basic business can be greatly accelerated when diagrams are used in teaching. A variety of experiments, conducted by psychologists studying the learning process, have demonstrated the value of diagrams as teaching aids. Experiments dealing with those teaching methods that best bring about concept formation and retention reveal two major factors as possible avenues to better learning by students. These factors are *simultaneous presentation* of the elements of a concept (one picture is worth a thousand words) and *direct experience* with the elements (learning by doing).

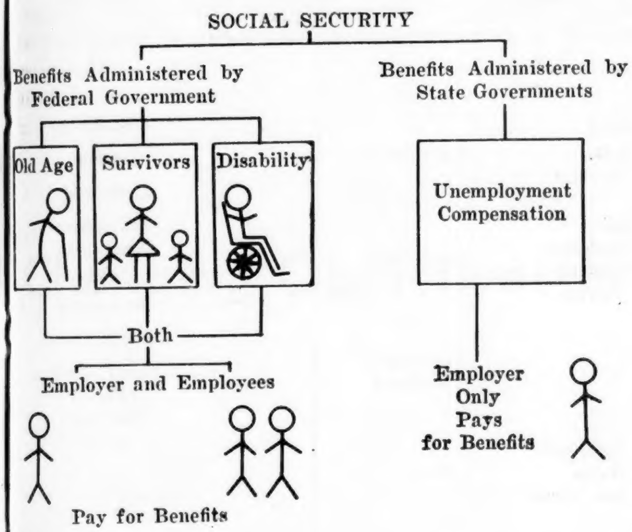
These experiments offer strong evidence that simultaneous presentation is more economical than serial presentation because less memory strain is required to see all the facts relating to a concept than to get the same facts at successive intervals over a longer period of time.

Frequently, in high schools it is not possible to provide direct experience with a concept. In such cases,

second-hand experience can be effective and is provided by having students diagram the elements of a concept after the entire concept has been presented to them. The illustrations that follow show how both simultaneous presentation and direct or second-hand experience are achieved.

Social Security Concept

Social security can be diagrammed to present all the elements simultaneously and thus clarify the concept more effectively than if each of the elements were presented serially through lecture or reading. The primary elements in social security are (a) types of coverage (old age, survivors, disability, unemployment compensation); (b) mode of payment (employer-employee for OASI and disability; employer for unemployment compensation); and (c) method of administration (federal government for OASI and disability; state government for unemployment compensation.) The diagrammatical presentation should be somewhat as follows:

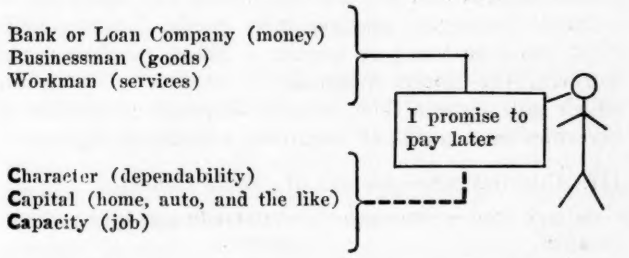


This diagram will permit simultaneous presentation of the elements of the social security concept. Of course, the theory of social welfare is not shown here, but it can be incorporated as part of the verbal presentation or presented at another time.

If the second factor of concept formation—direct experience—is not possible, the student can be required to participate in second-hand experience. After the teacher has presented, either verbally or visually, a concept or an idea, the learner is asked to diagram the idea in a simplified manner and without the use of the teacher's diagrams. The two outstanding advantages to such an activity are that it forces the student to clarify his thinking concerning the concept and it enables the teacher to determine quickly if any misconceptions exist regarding this particular idea.

Concept of Credit

A diagram can be used to illustrate how "man's confidence in man" operates.



Credit is defined as "a means by which something of value (money, goods, or services) is obtained now with a promise to pay for it at some future time." The learner can retain a substantial mental picture of the concept of credit through this diagram which shows that man *exchanges his promise to pay* (backed up by the three C's of credit: character, capital, and capacity) for money, goods, or services available from the bank or loan company, businessman, or workman. The use of color can add to the effectiveness of drawings and diagrams. For example, to help convey the idea of "exchange" in the previous illustration, the "promise" and the "three C's" of credit might be prepared in one color and the "money, goods, or services" with their sources might be prepared in another. Again, both direct and second-hand experience will help learners to consolidate the various elements of the credit concept.

Concept of Business Enterprise Investment

Investment in business enterprise can be illustrated by diagramming the three most common forms of business organization. The diagram will include the following elements:

I. Single Proprietorship—*a picture of "Joe's Clothing Shop"—a stick figure—$15,000*

In this first part of the illustration, students can see how a single proprietorship is started; in this case, the individual invests $15,000 in a small retail establishment. Then assume that the individual finds that his business is in need of expansion and that he cannot expand a business to a general department store without the aid of additional capital or specialized assistance in the areas of accounting, credit, and sales management.

II. Partnership—*picture of "General Department Store"—4 stick figures (General Manager, Accountant, Credit Manager, Sales Manager)—$60,000*

In the second part of the illustration, the owner of the small retail establishment decides to solve his problem of expansion by taking in partners who are specialists in the areas of accounting, credit, and sales and who can contribute $15,000 each toward the expansion of the physical plant of the business to a general clothing store.

The $15,000 contributed by each person helps illustrate the meaning of "equity in ownership." Increased demand for the goods and services offered by the general department store causes the partners to decide they should expand and become the owners and operators of a textile factory to produce their goods. Lacking sufficient funds to build or acquire a plant, machines, and workers, the partners decide to form a corporation, which will permit them to sell corporate securities to investors as a means of acquiring additional capital.

III. CORPORATION—*picture of textile factory*

On left side of diagram:
$200,000
Drawings of several stick figures some holding preferred stock (P.S.) certificates, some holding common stock (C.S.) certificates. Common stockholders also have "voice" shown.

On right side of diagram:
$200,000
Stick figures holding mortgage bonds (M.B.) and debenture bonds (D.B.).

In center of diagram, show stick figures holding both stock and bond certificates.

STOCKHOLDERS (OWNERS)	BONDHOLDERS (CREDITORS)
Preferred stock certificates	Mortgage bond certificates
Common stock certificates	Debenture bond certificates
↓	↓
Pay Dividends	Pay Interest

CORPORATE SECURITIES

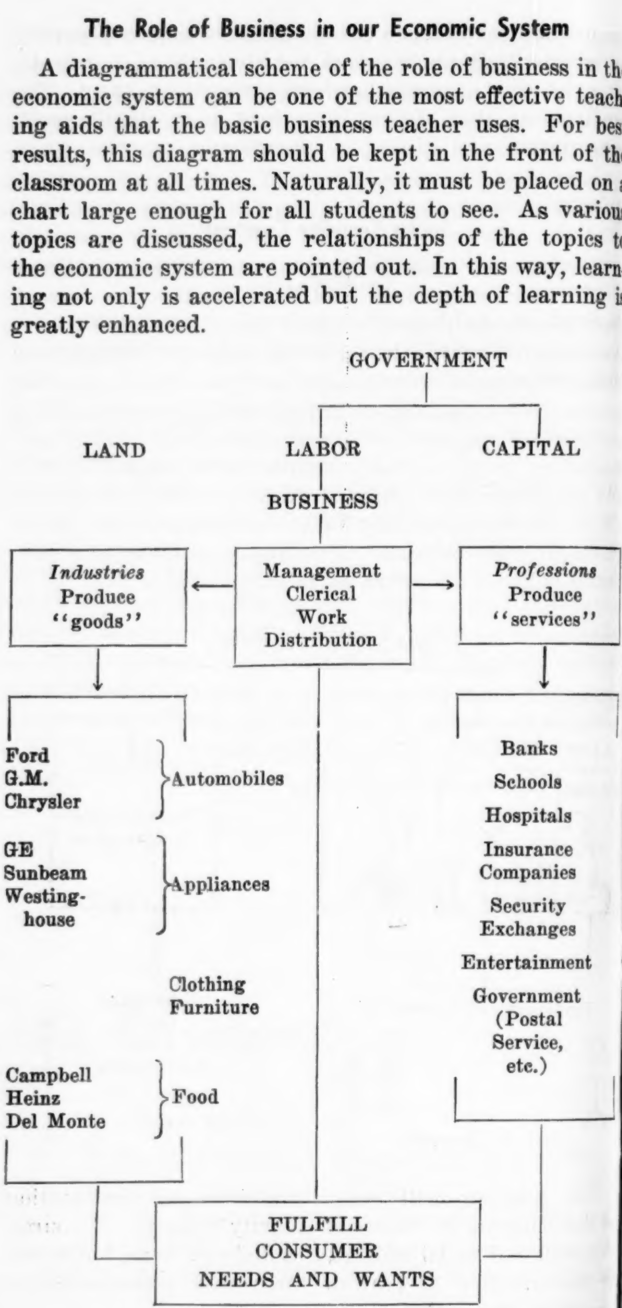
In the final part of the illustration, the partners require $400,000 additional capital which they decide will be acquired by inviting invested capital from the two main types of corporate investors: stockholders (owners) and bondholders (creditors). The stock will be issued as $100,000 worth of preferred and $100,000 worth of common. Here, of course, the teacher uses the stickmen on the left side of the diagram to explain the difference between common and preferred stock. Although both types of stockholders are owners, only common stockholders in this case have a voice in the management. Voice in management is symbolized by having the word "voice" project from the heads of the common stockholders (stickmen holding common stock certificates). An individual may be both a preferred and a common stockholder. The center of the diagram shows that stockholders also may be bondholders.

A similar explanation is needed to point out the difference between mortgage bonds and debenture bonds and how these bonds were used to finance the remainder of the $400,000. The fact that stock pays dividends and bonds pay interest must be emphasized, as must the fact that stock certificates and bond certificates both are referred to as corporate securities.

This particular diagram was used in class throughout the study of business investments and it served as a constant guide and reference in seeing the relationships of different types of investments at all levels of business.

The Role of Business in our Economic System

A diagrammatical scheme of the role of business in the economic system can be one of the most effective teaching aids that the basic business teacher uses. For best results, this diagram should be kept in the front of the classroom at all times. Naturally, it must be placed on a chart large enough for all students to see. As various topics are discussed, the relationships of the topics to the economic system are pointed out. In this way, learning not only is accelerated but the depth of learning is greatly enhanced.



Definitions:

1. The *economic system* is the set of man-made arrangements that has been devised to provide the answers to what, when, and how much use will be made of *land, labor,* and *capital.*

2. *Business* is the *management* and *distribution* of the goods and services produced by industry and the professions and as such is the integrating element between producers and consumers.

In the initial stages of the study of this chart, the students must be helped to see how business uses land,

labor, and capital to produce goods and services in the effort to satisfy the wants and needs of consumers. Also, it must be pointed out that management, labor, and capital are, to some extent, regulated by all levels of government.

The effects of every economic action—tax increase, subsidy, labor strike, price increase, protective tariff, foreign imports, inefficiency in distribution, levels of productivity, and the like—can be seen in relation to every element in the entire economy, when such a chart is used. Classes using such a diagram have found it to be immensely effective in aiding the process of concept formation.

Other Basic Business Concepts

A number of ideas in basic business lend themselves to this diagramming activity. Each of the following concepts can be diagrammed to produce accelerated learning: the budget, competition, types of banking institutions, bank accounts, payer-payee and drawer-drawee, check clearing process, bank draft, types of insurance, sharing risks, types of credit, credit bureau, diversification of investments, securities exchange, role of government in business, state government taxes and expenditures, federal government taxes and expenditures, local government taxes and expenditures, indirect (hidden) tax, collective bargaining, and labor organization.

In Conclusion

Concept formation is the most important goal of instruction in any subject. All available methods, techniques, and devices must be utilized. Teachers must search for the ways in which concepts are formed most rapidly and most permanently. There is no doubt that the use of diagrams as described here greatly facilitates concept formation. Although there is little evidence, in the charts illustrated here, to indicate that proper attitudes are formed—and attitudes are important segments of concepts—the insight into the processes involved within a concept frequently is a long step in attitude development. Certainly, understanding is one of the surest ways of developing proper attitudes. These diagrams lead the student through the understandings and the development of attitudes into high-level concept formation.

Changing Objectives in General Business

by **RICHARD D. BROWN**
Lebo High School, Lebo, Kansas

The general business course at the ninth-grade level has had an interesting and confusing history. While the course was included in the curriculum of a few high schools before 1919, very little attention was focused on it until the late Frederick G. Nichols of Harvard University published the results of a study he made for the Federal Board for Vocational Education in that year.

Among other things, the study uncovered the need for some instruction early in high school to meet the requirement of junior office and store workers. Since very few of the students taking shorthand and typewriting were obtaining jobs using these skills, but were getting jobs requiring clerical skills, Mr. Nichols proposed a course at the ninth-grade level to prepare future clerks. Most of the drop-out students, it was discovered, were working as file clerks, sales clerks, and wrapping clerks.

Junior business training, the forerunner of general business, evolved slowly as a course designed to give prospective junior workers specific skills, which included the ability to compute figures quickly and accurately and to write legibly.

The business information part of the course included, in addition to specific vocational preparation, content covering such junior clerical jobs as messenger, timekeeper, payroll clerk, cashier, shipping clerk, receiving clerk, file clerk, and bundle wrapper—material intended for vocational guidance and general education purposes.

The course grew rapidly during its first years but as age limits for compulsory school attendance were raised and child labor laws tightened, the number of students under 16 years of age leaving school to take junior jobs declined rapidly. There was considerable

argument at this time as to the future of the course. Most educators felt it should remain in the curriculum, but there was no unified belief as to the content of the course or to its objectives.

Gradually the content and objectives of junior business training swung around to the social and personal-use aims. The name, general business, gradually replaced junior business training as the social business aspect of the course became more important.

Course Objectives from 1919 to 1928

The objectives for junior business training during the period from 1919 to 1928 as listed in order of frequency by authors of periodical articles and textbooks were:

1. To prepare future dropouts for junior clerical jobs
2. To teach basic principles of business
3. To teach business organization
4. To serve as an exploratory course
5. Foundation for further business education
6. To give knowledges needed in everyday business transactions.

As these objectives reflect, the course was primarily vocational and prevocational in nature. All five of the authors of textbooks written during the period and 12 of the 15 contributors of articles were in agreement on this. There was considerable disagreement as to a name for the course during this period with eight different names being used. Junior business training was the most popular.

Course Objectives from 1929 to 1938

During the period from 1929 to 1938, the objectives for the course remained about the same except that vocational guidance was added as a necessary objective.

The contributors to periodicals slowly swung around to the opinion that the course should be taught primarily with personal-use values in mind. The vocational information objective tumbled to fifth position in number of times listed, which probably was due in large part to the depression during the period 1929 to 1938. There was obviously a shortage of jobs and little reason to prepare junior workers for jobs that did not exist.

The widespread belief that good general education was a prerequisite to efficiency on the job, coupled with widespread unemployment, led to the gradual elimination of the vocational clerical preparation aspect of general business.

It was apparent during this period that the contributors of articles began to adopt the personal-use objective of the course as the primary objective, while the authors of textbooks still clung to the more traditional aim of the course, vocational preparation.

Again during this period, there was a wide variety of names used for the course, with junior business training mentioned most frequently. General business, however, appeared to be gaining in popularity.

Course Objectives from 1939 to 1948

During the period 1939 to 1948, two new objectives were added to the list of those recommended for the course. It was recommended that the general business course should develop a favorable attitude toward business and teach those consumer skills needed for satisfactory living. This last objective appears to be an outgrowth of the depression which swept the United States before World War II.

Both the authors of textbooks and contributors of articles were in agreement during this period that personal-use business information was the main objective of the general business course. Ninety-one percent of the authors of articles and all nine of the textbook authors listed this.

Textbook authors appeared to be a bit more reluctant to erase the vocational objective of the course. Four of the nine textbooks listed vocational preparation as one of the main objectives of the course. Only one magazine article listed vocational information as one of the major objectives. Again. there was little agreement as to a name for the course during this period. General business and junior business training were listed most often.

Course Objectives from 1949 to 1958

In the last period covered by the study, 1949 to 1958, the authors listed preparation for economic citizenship and sharpening computational and writing skills as important objectives of the course.

Also in this period, for the first time in the history of the course, the vocational objective was not mentioned in either textbooks or magazine articles. Thus, there was a swing from the position of stressing the vocational values of the course to putting the entire emphasis on the personal-use values.

Personal-use business information and vocational guidance were the two objectives listed most frequently by both types of publications. Three objectives were mentioned by the writers as being important in all four periods of the study: personal-use business information, foundation for further study in business education, and the basic principles, practices, and workings of business.

The vocational guidance aim was mentioned in the last three periods, and it has become a strong second to personal-use business information in frequency of listing. During the first three periods, the exploratory values of the course were listed, but in the last period it was not mentioned.

The vocational objective was very strongly rated during the first two periods, fell off considerably during the third period, and disappeared from the list during the last period. The objective of developing a favorable attitude toward business made its appearance during the period 1939 to 1948 and is again listed during the period from 1949 to 1958.

The objectives of general business apparently are affected by social and economic conditions in the country.

The objectives of the course as stated by the contributors of articles in one period were usually followed by the authors of textbooks in the next period. In other words, the contributors of articles apparently formulated the objectives to be used in later textbooks.

This has considerable significance for us today. The periodical articles during the period 1949 to 1958 listed development of desirable attitudes toward business and exploratory values as being among the top six objectives for the course. Neither was mentioned very often in textbooks. Perhaps both will receive added significance from the textbook authors in the next revision of our general business textbooks. Some of the larger high schools in some areas now are using the general business course as an exploratory or survey course. Also, developing a favorable attitude towards business is receiving more and more attention, not only from business educators but from the American public.

Economic Conditions Affect Objectives

The objectives of general business apparently are affected by social and economic conditions in the country. For example, the consumer education objective was one of the most important during the period from 1939 to 1948, the period immediately following the great depression. The vocational guidance objective became popular when students no longer frequently dropped out of school to take jobs but began planning their vocations for later life.

It is becoming increasingly important for every citizen to have an understanding of the labor-management struggle, as focused by the recent nation-wide steel strike. Perhaps an understanding of labor-management relations should be added as an important objective of the course. Also, the cold war between the United States and Russia has settled down to an economic war. Perhaps the teaching of an understanding of the characteristics of the capitalist and communist economic systems should be one of the objectives of general business.

These are but two examples of vital social and economic issues taking place today. We need to take a closer look at what is happening in our world at the present time. Perhaps the objectives of general business are about to undergo another radical change based on the moving social and economic forces around us.

United Services is a continuous department of the BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM. Members are urged to share their teaching experiences with our readers. The most acceptable lengths for articles are one thousand or one thousand two hundred words. Manuscripts should be mailed to the editor of the appropriate service or to the executive editor.

UNITED SERVICES

WORK-EXPERIENCE FOR TEACHERS

PAUL S. LOMAX, Editor
Professor Emeritus, New York University
Maplewood, New Jersey

COOPERATIVE WORK-EXPERIENCE FOR BUSINESS TEACHERS

Contributed by **ROSWELL E. FAIRBANK**
State University, College of Education at Albany, Albany, New York

"I believe that many teachers have not been out in business to see what's going on. They teach the same thing the same way year after year. Here is a golden opportunity to see actually how business is operating, meet and exchange ideas with fellow teachers, and earn college credit and money all at the same time. I would heartily recommend this course to everyone."

"I find myself continually referring to things I have learned on the job, especially business English. I have placed more emphasis on penmanship, spelling, and actual composing of business letters. My five weeks of work experience took me through every department of a large insurance office. It is much easier for me to talk about the jobs available for high school business graduates, having experienced them myself."

These comments, typical of the group response, were submitted anonymously by four of 44 high school business teachers who have completed the cooperative work-experience program in business education at the New York State University, College of Education at Albany.

During the summer session of 1956, 16 business teachers from New York state high schools participated in a newly inaugurated cooperative work-experience program in office skills. These business teachers earned four hours of graduate credit for four weeks of office work in businesses of the Albany area and two weeks of related day and evening on-campus activity. The success of this initial venture warranted continuation of the program; thereafter, 12 business teachers completed a somewhat revised program during the summer of 1957, and 16 completed the program in 1958. Under the revised program, six hours of graduate credit were given for five weeks of office work and one week of related on-campus activity. All students participated in twice-weekly evening seminars during the period of office work. All workers were paid the prevailing wage for the work they performed in office positions located for them by the college coordinator of the program.

Organizing Employers. Twenty-four businesses in the Albany area cooperated with the college in providing work opportunities for business teachers. Each year the participating business firms represented a variety of enterprises: banking, communication, manufacturing, insurance, small loan companies, state government, retailing, and credit rating. Some of these businesses were small, employing only two or three office workers; others employed 100 or more workers in a variety of office positions. This variety in participating businesses was deliberately arranged to provide comparison and contrast in the working experiences of students.

From February through June each year, organizing employers to participate in the cooperative program was a time-consuming part-time activity for the coordinator —a member of the college business faculty. As a first step, the faculty of the business department was asked to suggest appropriate and cooperative businesses and, when possible, to provide the name of an executive who might be sympathetic to the program. Experience has indicated that the approach to businesses through top management was more successful than the approach through operating personnel.

At least three conferences with each prospective employer were usually necessary to complete preliminary arrangements for the program. The initial contact, made by personal visit or by telephone, was for purposes of describing the program, creating interest, and inviting participation. An Employer's Information Bulletin, a two-page brochure describing the program, was either given to the prospective employer during this conference or mailed to him if the conference was by telephone. Most employers wanted to confer with other personnel before deciding whether or not to participate. The Information Bulletin provided a valuable aid to this con-

sultative process by supplying concise information about the objectives and procedures of the program.

A second conference between the coordinator and the prospective employer was held to determine whether or not the employer would enter the program and, if he would, to determine his preferences in the worker's background, experience, and other qualifications. For example, some employers would employ women workers only; some wanted special stenographic or bookkeeping skills; or some preferred to employ a teacher from a nearby school. At this conference the coordinator and employer also agreed on work to be done by the employee, time and place of initial interview, salary, and other details.

After determining which students would be available in the program, the coordinator conferred for the third time with each employer to agree on the specific worker to be assigned. The coordinator usually recommended one or more appropriate workers to the employer after matching employer preferences with employee qualifications and preferences. In a majority of cases, employers accepted the coordinator's recommendation without major question. Through these conferences, an atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence was established between the employer and the coordinator.

Employees cited one or more of the following reasons for participating in the program:

1. "It provides an opportunity to get high quality, mature, and adaptable summer workers to replace regular workers during rush periods or vacation time." In several cases, employers made special arrangements with teacher-students to extend employment through the summer vacation. This was a direct employer-employee relationship that did not involve the college. In no case, however, was an employer successful in permanently attracting a worker away from teaching; rather, teachers were more convinced than ever before that teaching is an attractive career.

2. "It provides an opportunity to render valuable service to education by helping business teachers to do a better job with their students." Many of these employers showed a genuine interest in education and were willing to support this program as a contribution to public education. Other employers hoped that, as a by-product of this program, better business graduates would be guided to their business firms by participating teachers.

3. "It provides an opportunity to have a well-educated and well-trained business teacher observe and react to procedures and techniques of our business office."

Whatever their motives in cooperating with this program, employers effectively carried out several major responsibilities for their workers.

Each business:

1. Administered to the teacher-worker the customary pre-employment tests, interview, and physical examination at some time during the first week of the program. Despite the fact that the employee had already been assigned to the job, employers did a realistic piece of work in putting these teachers through the same employment process that a beginning worker would undergo.

2. Employed the student in full-time office work for a period of four or five weeks. In all cases, the employer attempted to gain useful, productive work from the employee while at the same time acquainting the employee with the total operations of the business. Some employers provided this "overview" by assigning the worker to several different stations; others gave the employee a permanent work station, then provided an intensive guided tour of the business. Whatever the procedure, experience showed that both employer and employee were better satisfied when the worker was kept busy at useful work.

3. Paid the usual wage for the type of work performed by such office workers, with recognition wherever possible of the unusual maturity and skill of the business teacher-worker. The workers' pay during the three years of this program averaged about $55 a week; the range was from $38 to $85 a week.

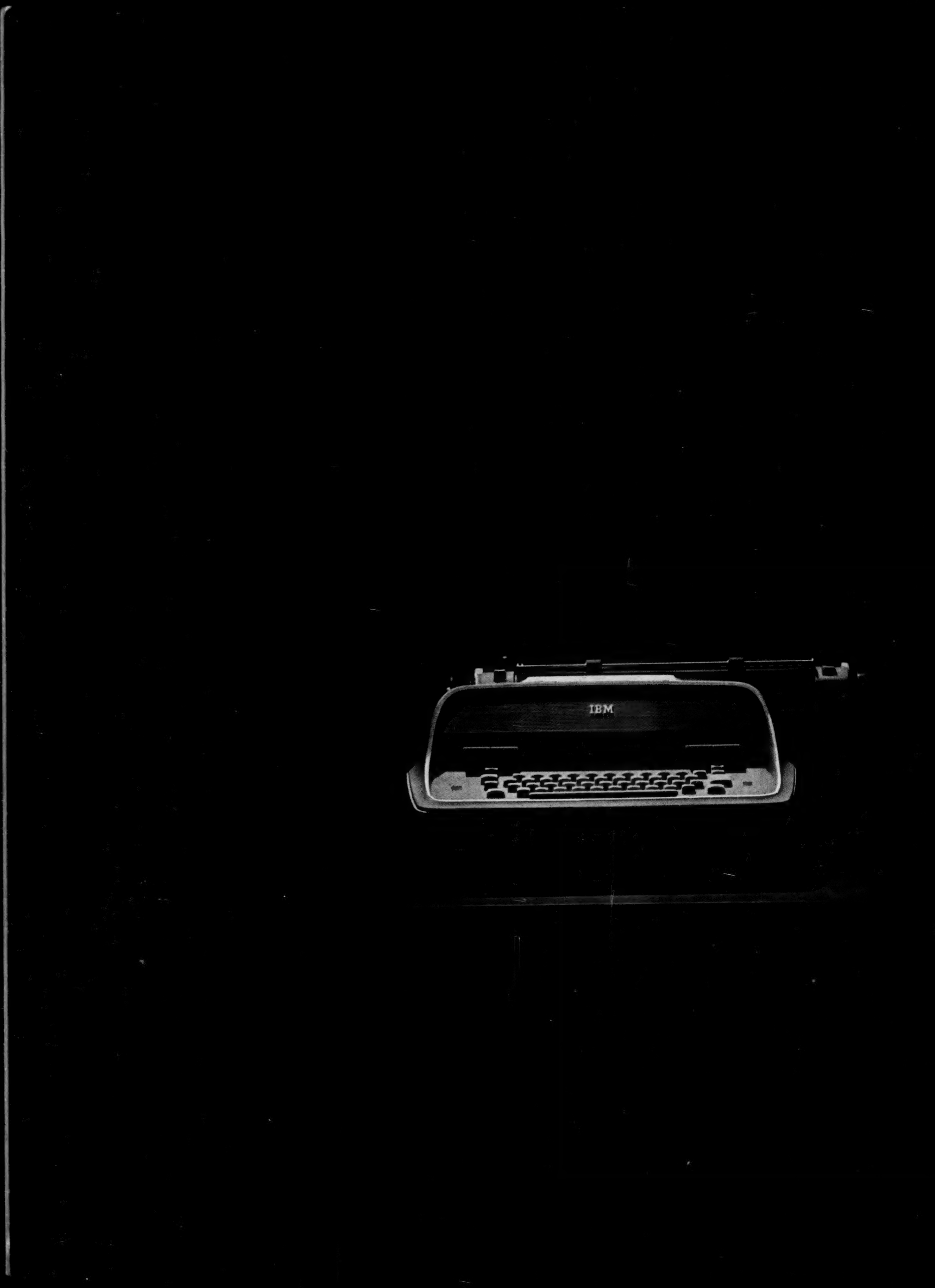
Several employers gave added support to the program by participating in evening discussion meetings with the students. The recession of 1958, coupled with local changes in employment practices, resulted in unusual difficulty in locating enough office positions. Several employers were lost to the program, but in no case was this loss traceable to dissatisfaction with the program or with the workers. These businesses were cutting costs or instituting training programs for their permanent personnel. It was discovered that an early start on the alignment of employers is imperative.

Organizing Students. Early experience resulted in limiting registration in this course to 20 students. Twenty good office positions could be located; a group of this size could be handled by one coordinator; optimum benefit from the pooling and sharing of experiences could be gained by all participants. Students were permitted to take the course only once.

This course was publicized to college seniors by announcements in classes and by descriptive, one-page brochures. These brochures were also mailed to business teachers in the eastern half of the state with the announcement of the annual Commerce Club Spring Conference. This brochure included a coupon which could be returned to the coordinator to show interest in the program and to request further information. Announcements were also inserted in the regular college catalog and several professional journals.

Students who returned the coupon were sent copies of a personal data sheet which was to be completed and returned to the coordinator as a declaration of intent to register in the course. Slightly more than one-half of those who indicated interest in the program through this coupon ultimately registered for the course. The information on these data sheets concerning education, teaching experience, previous work experience, and preferences in type of employment was used by the coordinator in assigning workers to places of employment. Priority in registration was given to those who registered earliest. Early in June, prospective students were notified

(*Please turn to page* 36)


IBM

ZENOBIA T. LILES, Editor
State Department of Education, Atlanta, Georgia

SYMBOL SHORTHAND SYSTEMS

Contributed by **GEORGE A. WAGONER**
University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee

Shorthand systems are difficult to evaluate because the mere examination of the physical characteristics is inadequate for determining the relative merits. The degree of learning difficulty of any given symbol or principle is unknown. Few libraries have detailed information about the history of shorthand systems. Few articles are written today on this subject and only a few attempts have been made in recent years to compare and describe shorthand systems.

Perhaps the best of the modern publications on shorthand systems are *Selections from the Story of Shorthand* by John Robert Gregg (1941), a series of small booklets written and published by James W. Beers between 1948 and 1954, and a book by H. Glatte entitled *Shorthand Systems of the World* published by the Philosophical Library (1959). Most of the statements in this article may be substantiated by these references.

Shorthand systems may be classified roughly into (a) symbol systems and (b) longhand adaptations. The dictionary defines shorthand as "any system of speed writing using symbols that can be made quickly to represent letters, words, or phrases." Therefore, longhand adaptations might be considered as substitutes for shorthand and would include machine shorthand systems as well as Speedwriting and like systems. Next month's article will be on these longhand systems.

Symbol systems may be divided into light line or shaded systems (the thickening of certain strokes). They may also be classified as cursive or geometrical. *Cursive* refers to symbols based on longhand writing motions and *geometrical* refers to the use of straight lines and parts of an ellipse, oval, or circle. Further classification may be made on the basis of position. Usually the positioning of a consonant above the line, on the line, or below the line indicates the appropriate following vowel. Some systems express vowels by means of circles, loops, ovals, hooks, or diacritical marks.

The word *system* is a much overworked word. Probably no symbol shorthand system in use today is really distinctive from any preceding systems; all are modifications, improvements, or variations from some older style or system of writing. The works of Samuel Taylor in 1786, Isaac Pitman in 1837, and Jesse George Cross in 1878 are among those most entitled to be called systems instead of styles of writing.

Few major changes have been made in shorthand systems in recent years. The big improvements have been made in textbooks and instructional materials. The success of a shorthand system today is largely dependent on the teaching materials and services of publishers to shorthand teachers rather than primarily on the merits of the system.

Modern symbol shorthand can be considered as dating from 1837 when Sir Isaac Pitman published *Stenographic Sound-hand.* Many systems and modifications of systems had been used previous to that time; in fact, almost 100 new systems were introduced between 1800 and 1837. The system of Samuel Taylor was probably the most widely used when Pitman began his work. Harding versions of Taylor's system were published in at least 26 editions. Most shorthand authors instructed the writers to write by sound, but that was almost impossible because the systems did not have enough different signs to take care of 40 or more sounds in the English language. The grouping of vowel sounds so that few characters were necessary was introduced by Aldridge in 1766, and classifications of vowel sounds were refined in the Isaac Pitman system. Besides recognizing the similarity of sounds of *a* and designating one symbol for them and the sounds of *e* by one symbol, similar signs for similar consonant sounds were used. For example, *t* and *d, f* and *v,* and *b* and *p.* A light vertical line was used for the whispered sound and a heavy line for the voiced sound in *t* and *d.* Likewise, thin and thick lines respectively were used for *f* and *v* and other pairs of sounds. Benn Pitman, brother of Isaac, brought this system to America in 1852. Benn Pitman later modified his brother's system and by 1890 his system was being taught in about one-third of the schools in this country. Isaac Pitman, Graham, Munson, and Cross were divided almost equally in the remaining schools.

John Robert Gregg presented his system in England in 1888 and brought it to this country in 1893. By 1918 Gregg shorthand was being taught in somewhat over 80 percent of the schools with the Benn Pitman, Isaac Pitman, and Graham systems being taught in most of the remaining schools. Today the percentage teaching Gregg in this country is well over 90 percent. The greatest concentration of schools teaching Pitman shorthand in the United States today is in New York City; however, Pitman is still the predominant system in Canada.

(*Please turn to next page*)

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This is the first of a two-part series on shorthand systems. This month's article is devoted to symbol shorthand systems; next month's will discuss the longhand systems.*

Some of the interesting *firsts* in shorthand symbol systems are as follows: The first shorthand work published in the English language was by Timothy Bright in 1588. The first shorthand book published in America was the Gurney system in 1789. The first use of sections of an oval to indicate consonants was by Cross in 1878. The first to use a circle to indicate a vowel was Willis in 1618. "Drop the termination of long words," which is a common suggestion in many systems, was first adopted on a large scale by Graham in 1858.

Some of the principles usually thought of as Pitmanic (characteristics of some of the modifications of the original Pitman system) are (a) use of initial hook to show a following *l* or *r*, (b) the halving of a stroke to show the addition of *t* or *d* or an *n* could be halved to make *ngk*, (c) the doubling of curves to add *thr*, and (d) shading or the use of light and dark strokes to distinguish between two consonants. The use of position is a characteristic of present-day shorthand systems such as Thomas, Capital, and Garber. Relative positions are used in Gregg when *o* is written above the line for *over* and a dot below a word for *ing*. However, position as applied to a shorthand system ordinarily refers to the expression of a following vowel by writing a consonant in a certain location in respect to the line. To illustrate in Thomas shorthand, the three positions are above the line for *a*, on the line for *e* and short *i*, and below the line for *o* and *u*. Writing the large circle which represents *b* above the line would be the outline for *bay*, writing the circle on the line would be *be*, and writing below the line would be *bow*. If a *d*, a downward written curved stroke, is added to the circle above the line, the word is *bad*. The same outline started on the line would be *bed*, and the outline written below the line would be *bud*.

Some systems make a finer vowel distinction with the additional position of *through* the line. A fifth position can be made by separating *just* below the line from below the line. The latest symbol systems in this country tend to be light line with one or three positions with most of the principles based on the use of joined and disjoined symbols for prefixes and suffixes.

Many shorthand teachers do not realize the difficulties of the English language applied to a shorthand system. The student frequently visualizes the printed word by spelling rather than the spoken word by sound. For example, *ses* blend in Gregg appears in at least 25 different spellings in the printed word such as in ac*cess*, bree*zes*, *cis*tern, *schis*m, *sys*tem. An early shorthand author pointed out that a foreigner who never saw the word *scissors* might spell it in any one of 1,745,222 different ways, in each case having an authority in other words of the language to justify his letter combinations. One of these combinations is *schiesourrhce*, justified by *sch*ism, s*ie*ve, a*s*, hon*our*, my*rrh*, and sacrifi*ce*.

One of the biggest unsolved problems in symbol systems today is vowel expression. Some systems try to leave out all vowels thus causing transcription errors and slow transcription rates. The other extreme of precise vowel expression causes difficulty of character formation and hesitations to determine the correct vowel to write. Somewhere between these two extremes must be the ideal solution. This vowel problem and other variations in our language will provide shorthand research workers many problems for years to come.

The experience of the contributor has been that learning another system of shorthand every few years gives a shorthand teacher a deeper understanding of the learning problems in the system he is teaching. He is more likely to maintain a sympathetic attitude toward his students. He should have no fear of becoming confused by the different systems. He may provide the students with a humorous incident now and then when he writes a word in the wrong system, but the student will respect him for the fact that he knows other systems and they are struggling to learn one.

ARNOLD CONDON, Editor
University of Illinois, Urbana

OUR TYPISTS SHOULD BE TAUGHT THE TOOLS OF THEIR TRADE

Contributed by **BILL G. RAINEY**
Murray State Agricultural College
Tishomingo, Oklahoma

There is an appalling lack of instruction in many of our typewriting classes in the proper selection and use of carbons, ribbons, and erasers. We want to send into the business office a typist who not only knows how to typewrite but also one who has a knowledge of the various tools of the trade and a proficiency in their use.

Several hours of class time could be used easily in teaching and using the various carbon packs, ribbons, and erasers. Unless teachers take the time to explain and demonstrate the differences in these products, students will move on into business not knowing that each style and type has a different purpose.

Carbons. Differences in carbon paper includes finish, weight, size, color, and quality. Among the items with which a student should become acquainted are:

1. The higher quality carbon will last longer, produce sharper impressions, not curl as easily, produce more copies than cheaper quality paper, is cleaner to handle, and there is less smudging of copies.

2. The heaviest weight carbons are easier to handle and last longer but they will not allow the typist to make as many carbon copies simultaneously.

3. Lighter weights allow more copies to be made at the same time than does heavier carbon but they are harder to handle and do not last as long.

4. There are basically three types of typewriters (electric, standard, and noiseless) and each type requires a particular style of carbon paper for greatest efficiency.

5. There are different "finishes" (extra-hard, hard, medium, intense, extra-intense) of carbon paper and a particular finish should be used with a particular "type" (pica or elite).

6. The darkness of carbon copies can be regulated by the choice of "finishes." For example, extra-intense carbon produces a very black copy.

7. The condition of the typewriter platen has an effect on carbons.

8. The typist's touch (hard, soft, or medium) on a manual typewriter will affect carbons and, consequently, the typist should select a carbon finish in keeping with his touch. For example, a person who strikes the keys lightly should use carbon with a light finish to get the best copies possible.

9. Dirty type affects the legibility of carbons.

10. The path left by feeder rolls on carbon copies can be corrected to some extent by changing to a different weight and finish.

11. Some carbon is adversely affected by normal changes in atmospheric or climatic conditions.

12. Carbon life can be increased by reversing the carbon during usage or by using extra long carbon (longer than original copy on which typewritten) so that a certain amount of shifting of the carbon can be done.

13. There are different grades, sizes, colors, and finishes to carbon used for spirit duplicating and other duplicating processes just as there are in regular carbon paper.

14. Special smudge-proof carbon is now available which lasts longer than conventional carbon paper and requires only one weight and finish to meet the needs of most typewriting jobs. The price is slightly higher than the price for conventional carbon.

Ribbons. Typewriter ribbons should be selected for the specific make of typewriter and then the choice of material and inking should be chosen to suit the typist and the need.

1. Nylon ribbons produce a sharper carbon copy than do cotton ribbons. They also have a longer life.

2. Ribbons have different inkings (light, medium-heavy, heavy, extra-heavy). Heavier inked ribbons should be avoided when using elite type due to "filling up" of type with ink causing letters like *a*, *o*, *b*, and *q* to be filled up with ink on the typed sheet. The typist's touch (soft, average, or hard) should enter into determination of what degree of inking to select. A heavy touch requires a lighter inked ribbon than does a soft touch. Heavier inked ribbons usually last longer than lighter inked ribbons.

3. The condition of the typewriter platen will have a bearing on the type of ribbon to use. Soft platens (ordinarily, new machines have a soft platen and old machines a hard platen) require more inking in the ribbon than do hard platens.

4. There are different colored ribbons and ribbons which are colored half and half for special needs requiring the use of two colors.

5. Ribbon changing should be a task easily performed by any typist.

Erasers. Erasers come in a variety of shapes, styles, and materials, each with its own particular use.

1. The gray, round, whisk brush used by many students is suitable for erasing ink and typed material but

(*Please turn to page* 38)

R. NORVAL GARRETT, Editor
Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, Louisiana

REVIEW IN BOOKKEEPING INSTRUCTION

Contributed by **GERALD W. MAXWELL**
San Jose State College, San Jose, California

Review in bookkeeping involves bringing again to the students' attention a topic which was originally presented earlier in the course. Review may relate to the lesson of the previous day, week, or month.

Review may concern a portion of one chapter, several chapters or all the chapters covered thus far. Review is used to remind students of forgotten material, to reinforce original learning, and to clear up misconceptions carried over from original learning. At the beginning of the class period, review can direct pupils' attention toward bookkeeping and away from other subjects. Review is, of course, very helpful before all bookkeeping examinations.

Bookkeeping students often exclaim, "I can follow the presentation all right in the classroom; but when I get home and try to do the problems alone, I run into difficulty." Remarks like this demonstrate that review is essential to successful learning in bookkeeping. Because of the inherent complexity of bookkeeping principles, students should be exposed to principles and applications of principles several times. This is true even when the original teaching and learning is of high quality. Bernard[1] stated well the need for review:

"Time spent on overlearning is profitable in terms of the wider ramifications of learning. Review, drill, discussion of pertinent problems, and the presentation of examples . . . will increase the degree of learning that fosters transfer. One need not reflect very deeply on his own educational experiences to realize that the anxiety of teachers to cover the subject often resulted in superficial and incomplete learning. Teachers at all levels, from the primary grades to college, become concerned about completing the lesson. They shorten the learning process by resorting to lectures that leave the students bewildered. More time spent in elaborating on the materials that are covered will lead to better understanding and to overlearning and will increase the amount retained after a lapse of time. Better retention itself will lead to more transfer because the materials will be remembered for more new situations."

Four specific techniques which may be used when reviewing bookkeeping instruction involve (a) oral review questions—oral answers, (b) oral review questions—written answers, (c) written review problem with key, and (d) individual review assignments. These four techniques work especially well in teaching bookkeeping inasmuch as problem-solving is so inherent in bookkeeping. Some detailed suggestions for utilization of these techniques are given below:

1. *Oral review questions—oral answers.* Let us assume that yesterday's presentation covered the differences in adjusting rent when the original outlay involves an asset compared to when the original outlay involves an expense. At the beginning of class today, you might ask these questions and call for oral answers from the group. (Note that each of the questions call for very brief answers.)

Q. *Prepaid rent entered originally as an* asset. *When you adjust, what do you debit?*
A. Rent expense
Q. *What do you credit?*
A. Prepaid rent
Q. *Prepaid rent entered originally as an* expense. *When you adjust, what do you debit?*
A. Prepaid rent
Q. *What do you credit?*
A. Rent expense

Noting the reaction of the class to your questions gives a clue to the extent of their learning thus far. If they give a wrong answer, it is an obvious cue for further explanation. Perplexed expressions on the faces of a few students (even when the majority of the class give correct answers) are also a guide to the need for further clarification. When asking these questions, incidentally, it might be well sometimes to call on individual students as a test of their grasp of yesterday's presentation.

This particular technique, used at the beginning of the class period, has an additional advantage. Remember, your students have just come either to school or from another class. If Johnny has just come in from chemistry lab, for example, these oral review questions will help divert his attention from the sulfuric acid of the chemistry lab to the business at hand in your bookkeeping class.

2. *Oral review questions—written answers.* With this procedure, you ask the review questions orally and the students write their answers. Note in the following examples that the questions are worded so that brief answers are suitable.

Q. *What classification is accounts payable?*
A. Liability
Q. *When you pay on an account you owe, does this decrease or increase the balance of the account?*
A. Decrease
Q. *How do you show a decrease to a liability?*
A. Debit

[1]Bernard, Harold W. *Psychology of Learning and Teaching.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1954. p. 178.

The papers may be retained by the students or collected by the teacher. In either case, however, it is essential that the class immediately "go over" the answers and discuss them.

The questions above, it may be noted, concern three concepts that every bookkeeping student should know thoroughly: classifying accounts (cash is an asset, accounts payable is a liability, and so on), knowing whether an account is decreased or increased as the result of a given transaction, and knowing whether the increase or decrease is indicated by a debit or by a credit. These three concepts cannot be learned too thoroughly; they should be viewed and reviewed just as often as possible.

3. *Written review problems with key.* This technique works very well to help prepare students for an examination. You give a review problem or problems for the students to work in class. With the problem, you also give the key.

Here is how this technique might be applied: Suppose your exam is to cover the material in Chapters 9, 10, and 11; you believe your students are rather hazy about the content of Chapter 9. On review day, you assign a problem which relates to Chapter 9. The problem may be from the textbook or it may be one which you develop. The solution may be duplicated and copies passed out to the students, you may work the problem on the board while the students are working it at their desk, or you may do both. In any event, the solution should include the key steps as well as the ultimate answer.

The students are directed to use the key when they run into difficulty but only after they themselves have genuinely tried to overcome the difficulty. After all, you explain, they will not have the key when they take the examination. On the other hand, urge them to use the key when necessary. This insures correct learning.

After most of the students finish the problem, it is important to discuss the major points. If the solution has been put on the board, discussion of the problem is simplified because you may easily indicate specific points. During the discussion, emphasize the items which are important. Encourage questions.

4. *Individual review assignments.* For each chapter, it is well to select one or two supplementary problems which feature especially points you wish to highlight. Indicate that students may, on an optional basis, do these supplementary problems and that you will go over their solutions on an individual conference basis. The supplementary problems will probably be worked by top students who are not totally challenged by the regular class assignments or by students who are having difficulty and wish to work the extra problems as additional preparation for examinations. The best policy is to have your class understand that the optional problems are for the purpose of obtaining a deeper grasp of essential principles, and the students should not expect to have their grades affected directly by this additional work.

E. L. MARIETTA, Editor
Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan

TEACHING PERSONAL TRAITS AND BUSINESS SKILLS THROUGH DRAMATIZATION

Contributed by EDNA H. BARBOUR
Northern Illinois University, DeKalb

Dramatization is second in importance in learning effectiveness only to learning by actual experience. Almost any teaching technique which could be mentioned—films, records, lectures, reading the textbook, demonstrations, charts, graphs, blackboard demonstrations—are each less effective teaching methods than learning by dramatization.[1] The importance of desirable personality traits can be stressed through dramatization.

Development of personal traits should be stressed. Office work involves working with people. Studies show that lack of personality traits which are pleasing to others is more often the reason for dismissal from jobs than is lack of skill in performing office duties.

Traits and Skills. The importance of *cooperation* can be seen by the students in the following skit: The first scene shows one girl at five o'clock busily trying to get a statistical report checked and the girl at the neighboring desk finishing her work and leaving after noticing that her co-worker will probably be working for some time. The next scene shows the same setting with the girl who has finished her work assisting the girl who has not finished. The commentator supplies additional information about the situation as the students present the pantomime.

Initiative can be dramatized by showing the office worker reading a magazine and eating a candy bar after her work has been finished and the boss is out of town. The second scene shows the girl when her work is completed going to the company library and hunting information which will increase her knowledge of the business and make her a more valuable employee.

Grooming can be stressed by showing the worker arriving for work inappropriately dressed for the office and showing a second worker attractively attired for the office. *Punctuality, neatness,* and *efficiency* can be portrayed by showing two office workers starting the day's work. Miss Inefficiency arrives barely on time, does not take time to prepare her desk and equipment, cannot find materials when they are needed, has to ask neighbors for instructions, eraser, and dictionary. Miss Efficiency prepares her desk for the day's work, starts work without having to consult anyone, and finishes work ahead of Miss Inefficiency.

[1]Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching.* New York: Dryden Press, 1954.

Desirable personality traits and work habits may also be emphasized by dramatizing conversations which supervisors have concerning office workers. Several supervisors discuss two employees, one of whom is the ideal office worker with pleasing personality traits and work habits. The second worker is a constant source of irritation to other employees and to supervisors and has work habits which hinder her efficiency and the progress of the company.

The importance of skills which we are striving to perfect may also be stressed through dramatization. The effect of poorly composed letters might be noted by showing the reaction of a customer to an untactful collection letter which he has received. The next scene could show the effect which a well-written collection letter has upon the customer. The importance of the ability to use the various letter styles might be stressed by enacting a scene which shows the supervisor in a typewriting pool explaining the various letter styles which dictators in a firm prefer.

Job-getting techniques can be effectively presented by having the students dramatize an example of a good interview. Perhaps the teacher will want to be the interviewer and interview members of the class. To give students more practice to perfect skill in interviewing, lab periods could be held in which the students take turns interviewing each other in the classroom. The most frequently asked questions in interviews have been ennumerated in a pamphlet published by New York Life Insurance Company.[2] Scenes showing behavior during unsuccessful interviews could also be dramatized.

The duties of a receptionist can be portrayed by dramatization. A model receptionist might converse before the class with many different office callers. Students might also get practice in handling office callers and introducing office callers to the employer by acting as receptionist while various students act as the office callers.

Preparing the Skits. In most of the dramatizations a commentator or narrator is essential. The commentator points out to the listener, as the pantomime or dramatization is being given, the important facts which should be learned. Often the teacher is the best commentator. Students should enact these pantomimes and skits. Students can write excellent narrations for these dramatizations.

In addition to bringing the various desirable traits of a good office worker to life through dramatizations, the skits can provide a means whereby the students develop poise and self-confidence.

[2]*Your Job Interview.* New York Life Insurance Company, 1957.

ALVIN C. BECKETT, Editor
San Jose State College, San Jose, California

SPANISH CLASSES FOR SALESPEOPLE

Contributed by **AMALIA LLABRES de CHARNECO**
Department of Education of Puerto Rico
Hato Rey, Puerto Rico

Close contact with the Latin-American countries and Puerto Rico has brought a number of Spanish-speaking customers into retail stores. These customers very often have not mastered the English language and thus have some difficulty in getting salespeople to comprehend what they want. On the other hand, the store personnel cannot give these customers a convincing sales talk when they have difficulty in communicating with these Latin American clients.

Puerto Rican adult salesmanship classes constantly stress the importance of considering the point of view of the customer. If one is to understand the point of view of other people, one must be able to communicate fully with them. An acquaintance with the customer's language will contribute appreciably to an understanding and appreciation of his psychology. This understanding, in turn, will result in an increase in sales and more satisfied customers.

The success of such a class will largely depend upon the selection of a well qualified teacher. Such a teacher must have a good command of the correct pronunciation and speech in the Spanish language and must know how to teach conversational Spanish. A person whose native tongue is Spanish might be preferred. This person must also have some knowledge and experience in the field of retailing as well as teaching methods and teaching experience.

Basic Linguistic Skills. The learning of any language involves the acquisition of four basic linguistic skills: (a) understanding, (b) speaking, (c) reading, and (d) writing. These skills cannot be taught in isolation as one must necessarily supplement the other. Nevertheless, major emphasis can be given to one or more of them. Thus, in this particular case, there is need to emphasize the first two for it is necessary to teach the adult group of salespeople the indispensable minimum vocabulary that they need to employ in these stores and such teaching must be accomplished in a short period of time.

Pattern of Organization. Three main areas must be considered in the pattern of organization of all good teaching: (a) definition of aims, (b) selection of subject matter, and (c) selection of teaching method.

In this instance, the aim should be to teach the retail store personnel the minimum vocabulary needed to understand and communicate with Spanish-speaking customers.

The subject matter for the course must be selected from the everyday vocabulary needed and used in the store. The situations that are encountered by salespeople should be taken into consideration. A list of all the articles that the store sells must be incorporated into the vocabulary inventory. When the list is reasonably complete, the instructor must then prepare a course outline.

Finally, there is the selection of teaching method. Any method elected to lead to a satisfactory outcome will depend upon *aims, time* available, *money* in the administrative teaching budget, and the *intellectual* capacities and interests of the salespeople.

Methods of Teaching. Many methods have been used in the past and are still being used to teach foreign languages. No valid conclusions have been reached as to which method is the best for all have some good and bad points. It is necessary to recognize the most important and common methods and then partake of the best from each. In a "Handbook on the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese" the following methods are suggested:

1. *Grammar-Translation Method* — characterized by the learning of rules of grammar with examples, the analysis of short reading selections which illustrate the grammatical principles involved, and the translation from English into the foreign language of sentences which provide drill on the application of rules. Explanations and discussions are in English and no attempt is made to acquire a speaking knowledge of the foreign language. One may learn the system but the language itself still remains to be learned.

2. *Natural Method*—seeks to imitate the process by which a child learns his mother tongue. By means of pantomine, repetition, and an exchange of questions and answers, the teacher's speech is understood and imitated. This method is good for young children but not adults.

3. *Psychological Method*—based on the principle of association of ideas, stresses series of verbs grouped according to related actions. Vocabulary is learned in the form of sentences which are divided into subject groups. It lends itself to dramatization and to the liberal use of objects and pictures. Since series are generally memorized, a large, well-organized, practical vocabulary can be taught in a fairly short time.

4. *Phonetic Method*—begins with a study of the vocal organs and the manner of producing sounds. It empha-

EDITOR'S NOTE: ***Although not all distributive education classes are confronted with the particular problem related in this article, the principles could be adapted to meet such similar situations as language, economic, geographic, and climatic conditions peculiar to a certain locale.***

sizes good pronunciation and a ready, accurate command of the spoken language.

5. *Direct Method*—associating objects and ideas directly with the new word or idiom without resorting to any intermediary English. This method aims at well-rounded linguistic ability. The insistence upon using the foreign language exclusively can lead to a waste of time in this kind of method.

6. *Reading Method*—reading textbooks are placed at once in the hands of students. Aside from the class reading, the method provides for an early, continuous, and extensive reading program. If subsequent oral work is anticipated it is better to teach the fundamentals of good pronunciation in the beginning so that students will not form incorrect habits which afterward may require remedial reading.

7. *Conversational Method*—practice in hearing and speaking the language. No English is heard in class, and no time is allowed for reading or for writing, aside from short dictations. The conversations follow a carefully organized, prepared form which insures methodical building of vocabulary and systematic application of grammatical principles.

8. *Intensive Method*—developed by the armed forces for the learning of some language in the shortest possible time. Students spend the full working day of from eight to ten hours on the language. Emphasis is placed on correct pronunciation, ear training, oral practice, rote memory work, and consistent preparation. Aural-oral presentation precedes the grammar units.

9. *Eclectic or Combination Method*—selection of the most advantageous parts of all methods. This is in reality the teacher's own method.

Good course organization necessitates the defining of aims, careful selection of the subject matter, and effective choice of methods to be employed in teaching. If sales personnel are to achieve rapid progress in learning to speak and understand a foreign language, the following prerequisites are also essential: (a) good models—teacher and textbook; (b) maximum experience and drill aurally, mentally, and orally; and (c) thorough and regular preparation.

A Lesson Plan. The teacher must plan his lesson carefully if the class is to be conducted effectively. The following plan illustrates a useful guide for the introduction of Spanish for salespeople through means of the combination teaching method.

Introduction to the Teaching of Spanish for Salespeople

Objectives:

1. To make sales-store personnel realize the importance of learning Spanish as a means of increasing sales
2. To create eagerness and desire to learn the Spanish language
3. To teach sales-store personnel a service greeting approach in Spanish.

Preparation:

Advertise the course. Create desire to learn Spanish by displaying announcements on posters bulletin boards, and any other available means at least one week before the course begins.

Motivation:

1. Why should Spanish be learned? Close contact with the Latin-American countries and Puerto Rico have made it necessary to consider the importance of learning the Spanish language.

2. Of what personal value is the learning of Spanish? The point of view of the customer is important. If the point of view of the customer is to be understood, full communication with customers must be possible. There is nothing that contributes more to an understanding and appreciation of the psychology of other people than an acquaintance with their language.

3. How much Spanish is already known? Here, the teacher should have students take a piece of paper, place name on paper, and write at least one word in Spanish. Any word (except slang) should be accepted. Papers should be returned to teacher.

4. How were these Spanish words learned? Words selected from the papers handed to the teacher should be read aloud and the writer asked to recall how he learned the word. The teacher should explain the meaning of the word and its derivation.

Method:

1. Explain to the group the dialogue or situation to be presented.
2. Read to the class the first sentence of the dialogue in English.
3. Write the sentence on the blackboard in English.
4. Read the sentence from the blackboard.
5. Ask various students the meaning of the sentence in English.
6. Read the sentence again in Spanish.
7. Ask the group to join in the reading.
8. Ask individual students to read the sentence.
9. Repeat the sentence in Spanish after the student reads it. Praise the student without correcting his pronunciation.
10. Read again in unison two times.
11. Explain to the students in English how the customer might answer the question.
12. Write the answer on the blackboard in Spanish.
13. Have individual students read again the first sentence and the teacher will answer using the second sentence.
14. Explain in English the next sentence that follows in the dialogue.
15. Repeat the same procedure until the dialogue is completed.

Presentation:

ENGLISH: Good morning. May I help you?
SPANISH: *Buenos días. Me permite ayudarie?*
ENGLISH: Yes, I want to purchase a dress.
SPANISH: *Sí, quiero comprar un traje.*
ENGLISH: What size do you wear?
SPANISH: *Que tamaño usa usted?*
ENGLISH: Size 15.
SPANISH: *Tamaño quince.*
ENGLISH: This way, please.
SPANISH: *Por aquí, por favor.*

Evaluation:

Have several students try the entire dialogue. Teacher acts as customer and students as salespersons.

Teaching Techniques Used. In the lesson just presented, the following techniques were used.

1. Motivation through advertising campaign, testimonials, and question and answer technique
2. Presentation of units of expression rather than isolated words
3. Use of the blackboard as a visual aid
4. Drill in unison

(*Please turn to page* 38).

MARGUERITE CRUMLEY, Editor
State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia

COUNSELING BUSINESS STUDENTS BY USING THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY

Contributed by **WILLIAM SELDEN**
State Department of Public Instruction
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

Opportunities within the field of business education are almost endless—for boys as well as girls. It is the responsibility of the business education teacher in our public secondary schools to acquaint students with the variety of openings in business that stem directly from business subjects they teach. Some practical plans or projects are presented here to point up methods of gaining the interest of students before they select the business education curriculum and ways and means of broadening their outlook after they enroll in their business education courses.

Capturing the Imagination of Students. While visiting one high school, the contributor noted the large number of boys who were enrolled in business education classes and asked the principal how this was accomplished. The principal said that two senior high school business teachers on the coaching staff talk to junior high school students each year about the business education curriculum. As a result of their presentation a large number of junior high school boys elect the business curriculum. In this example, a senior high school uses another school in the community to counsel and recruit prospective business students. This might be considered far-fetched—certainly not all schools have business education teachers who are also coaches—but it is surprising what a little initiative can do.

A group of interested businessmen can be invited to put on a program for junior high school students before they select their course of study. This program might include an exhibit of the latest office machines plus several skits where beginning office employees demonstrate some of their job responsibilities. The office machines might include automatic typewriters, electric typewriters, dictation and transcribing machines, liquid and stencil duplicating equipment, and different types of adding-listing and calculating machines. One young employee might demonstrate taking dictation and transcribe on the typewriter or read it back; another employee might typewrite a stencil and run it off on a duplicating machine; and a third might show how he is keeping a set of books. It is also possible for some of the business teachers and business students from the senior high school to put on such a program

Career days are playing an increasingly important part in high school guidance. These events are very important, usually drawing big-name people from the community to address groups of students about various careers. Too many of our career days are held for senior high school students only. Should this event be expanded to include junior high school students before they select their course of study? Outside speakers for the classroom and field trips are also valuable ways to interest students in business education.

Then, too, there are any number of publications which might be read by students who are interested in the business education curriculum. These materials can be secured from publishing companies of business education textbooks, typewriting manufacturing companies, and trade and professional associations.

Holding the Interest of Students. During American Education Week the business education students in a high school in central Pennsylvania set up an office situation behind the windows of one of the leading stores in the community. Here, students worked at different office jobs such as bookkeeper and stenographer. A project of this type holds the interest of students who are enrolled in the business curriculum and captures the imagination of students who have not as yet selected their curriculum. Needless to say, this is an excellent media of public relations for the business education department.

Much has been written about work-training programs; however, more light should be thrown upon another type of work program which also appears to have real merit. This program is one which has worked successfully in a limited number of schools and requires coordination between the business education department and the businesses in the employment area. All twelfth-grade vocational business education students are placed for a one- or two-week period, preferably in January, in offices of the community. In this program, students observe, ask questions, and perform a limited amount of work. It is desirable for the business teachers to visit the businesses where students are assigned. After this experience, the students return to their regular school schedule. In one of the business classes, such as office practice, the experience in the office is thoroughly discussed.

An active Future Business Leaders of America chapter can do much toward gaining guidance from community business sources. The FBLA is an extra-class activity that can help in making community surveys, obtaining outstanding speakers, and so on. How effective an FBLA chapter might be depends upon the leadership of the business education department in helping mem-

(*Please turn to page* 38)

Work-Experience for Teachers

(*Continued from page* 22)

whether or not they would be finally accepted in the program. Final registration was completed on the first day of summer session when students conferred with the coordinator. Students were then told, for the first time, the businesses to which they were assigned, the working hours, pay rates, and other pertinent information. This procedure tended to emphasize registration in the program for educational values, rather than for the appeal of an attractive job at a high wage. Only one or two students each year failed to appear at final registration. This low drop-out rate justified the lengthy and somewhat involved preregistration process by minimizing disappointments to employers and by reducing employee relocation problems.

About one-third of the students in this summer program were June graduates who were going into their first teaching positions in the fall. Other students had had teaching experience ranging from one to thirty-five years, with a majority in the two- to five-year experience category. Many of these students had had office work experience prior to this course—usually part-time experience gained during undergraduate college years. However, this was the first office experience of one business teacher who had been teaching business subjects for more than 30 years.

Of 44 students who completed the program 28 were women; 16, men. In 1958, 10 of 16 students were men—a situation that created a major placement problem since a majority of the available positions were for women.

The First Week. The first week of the program was devoted almost entirely to on-campus activities that were essential to the ultimate success of the program. Here, the aims and tone of the entire program were established.

The first day was a busy and varied six hours of group activity focused on getting acquainted and establishing common goals. The classroom was established as a conference headquarters, with blackboard and writing facilities available to all. Each student was provided with a name plate showing his teaching position and office of summer employment; a duplicated directory gave more complete data about each member of the group.

The first item on the agenda was a welcome by the chairman of the business department, including a brief account of the origin and history of the program. Following this, each student was asked to introduce himself, giving information about his education, age, family status, previous work and teaching experience, present summer position, and salary. The coordinator encouraged a spirit of "free sharing" by revealing detailed information about each working position and how it was located. A brief "coffee break"—the first of many to be experienced during the summer—gave students an opportunity to get better acquainted.

The next item on the agenda, group planning of goals for the program, resulted in a clear perception by students of what they might achieve through this program. Groups consistently established similar goals: to gain first-hand work-experience in a modern business office; to see for themselves just how office work is conducted and what policies and standards are applied; to share experiences with fellow teachers; to refresh technical skills and to apply those skills to practical business problems; to collect or develop business materials and forms that are of value in classroom teaching; to discuss practical business problems with business leaders of the community; to earn graduate credit toward a master's degree while earning some income to help offset educational expenses. Two groups also identified another rather novel goal: to *disprove* the theory that "those who can't do, teach."

During this first planning session, students chose the two seminar evenings a week that were most satisfactory to the majority; students were also invited to identify and select topics, speakers, and panels. The coordinator acquainted the group with previous programs and guided them in their choices. This procedure prohibited advance arrangements by the coordinator, but the heightened interest and feeling by students that "this is *our* program" seemed more valuable.

Later during this first week, after group discussion and films concerning employment practices and interview procedures, each employee visited his place of business for interview, testing, and orientation. This usually took one-half day. After the interview, each student orally reported to the group concerning his experiences. From these reports, the group identified similarities and differences in business practice.

Some of the time remaining in this first week was given to skill refresher work and to obtaining information concerning places of employment. Students were encouraged to form teams for dictation and transcription practice if they were going into such work; the machines and other facilities of the college were made available on a laboratory basis. Written reports from former students were useful in acquainting some workers with their businesses.

A final major activity of the first week was to determine the office problems that the group would like to study during the summer, and to determine what data they would systematically gather and share to answer those problems. Students were interested in gathering data about wage rates and "fringe benefits," procedures of recruiting and selecting office workers, major problems of beginning workers, and job and advancement opportunities for office workers.

The Heart of the Program. Actual on-the-job experience and the related evening seminars were the true heart of this cooperative program. Jobs were deliberately chosen as typical of those to which students of these teachers

would go after graduation. Most of the positions were classified as general clerical and involved typewriting, machine computation, filing, using the telephone, and greeting the public. Other jobs were stenographic or secretarial, while a few involved bookkeeping or accounting. In these positions, business teachers used the basic skills and information that they would teach their students. They had experience with modern, efficient business methods and materials; they also experienced the harsh reality of monotony, inefficiency, and office cliques.

Each worker's experiences were shared with the others during five of ten evening seminar sessions. These sessions, lasting approximately two hours each, were spaced throughout the total work period for maximum impact. Two of these "family sessions," so-called because only the workers and the coordinator were present, were scheduled during the first week of work when initial impressions and events were fresh in the students' minds. Two other such sessions later in the program helped to keep the group up-to-date with everyone's experiences. A final evening seminar and a portion of the final day on campus at the end of the program were devoted to comparing and compiling data gathered by students concerning the problems that were identified in the first week. The wisdom of using varied types and sizes of businesses was especially apparent during this phase of the program. The employee of a large insurance office might say, "Business does it this way. I know, because in our office . . ." He would be immediately challenged by another worker: "Yes, maybe, but in our small office we don't do it that way; we . . ."

Five other sessions featured guests. Each year, students heard a panel of personnel specialists discuss the problems of recruiting, selecting, and orienting beginning office workers. A panel of four recent high school business graduates recounted their experiences as beginning office workers and reported ways in which their high school programs were helpful or inadequate. A panel of specialists representing retail credit, wholesale credit, credit rating, and account collection were an eye-opener to many students. A member of the state department of education talked each summer about the techniques and problems of conducting cooperative work-experience programs at the high school level. Other guests described employment opportunities in state service, or consumer education, and legislation. One of these "guest sessions" was devoted each year to a picnic at which all serious talk was banned.

Each year, a local utility company opened its facilities during one evening to provide a field trip for the cooperative work-experience group. A field trip to the state civil service department on the last day of the course provided a wealth of information about state employment.

Writing requirements for this program were kept to a minimum. Each student was required to submit periodically a written report, or diary, of his experiences. This report, prepared in duplicate with a copy for the coordinator, kept the coordinator in close touch with the working situation. These reports were intended to serve also as a usable future reference for the business teacher. Students were encouraged to write these reports while events were fresh in mind, to include minor as well as major events, and to report their reactions to their experiences. Each student was also expected to write letters of appreciation to his work supervisors when the program ended.

Employee Visitations. Each worker was visited on the job by the coordinator once or twice during the period of employment. These visits were primarily for the purpose of smoothing out rough spots in the program, for clearing up any questions that employers might have, and for giving the workers a feeling of belonging to a unified, college-sponsored program. In some cases where employment was arranged through top executives, subordinate supervisors were not fully informed about the program. An informal conference between the supervisor and the coordinator helped to smooth out misunderstandings. While little or no attempt was made by the coordinator to directly observe or supervise the worker in performing his duties, nearly all workers were eager to learn of the coordinator's and employer's reaction to their work.

These visits were also of great personal value to the coordinator, enabling him to observe business activity firsthand and to discuss many business problems with employers. Direct, personal association with employers proved to be an invaluable aid to the coordinator in refining and strengthening the program.

Each year, one or the other of the local newspapers featured an article on the cooperative program, including pictures of workers taken on the job or at seminar meetings. This publicity was welcomed by employers and students alike; it also aroused the interest of many nonbusiness faculty members at the college.

Evaluating the Program. The experiences and suggestions of students, employers, and the coordinator provided a base for revisions in the program each succeeding summer.

On the final day of the program, participating students submitted an unsigned, comprehensive evaluative questionnaire concerning the total program. All 44 students rated the course as one which they would recommend to another business teacher as a valuable professional experience. Partially as a result of these student evaluations, the work period was increased from four to five weeks, and time devoted to other activities was reallocated. These student evaluations, supported by written diaries, provided convincing evidence that the course should be continued for increased credit.

A former student of this program recently conducted a follow-up evaluation of the program by communicating with all students of the 1956 and 1957 programs. All of the former students who responded, 80 percent of the

(*Please turn to next page*)

Work-Experience for Teachers

(*Continued from page* 37)

group, said that the program had made a major contribution to their teaching effectiveness and indicated numerous ways in which learning from this course had been applied to their teaching.

Employers were not asked to make burdensome written evaluations of the program or of their workers. Each year, however, employers were invited by the coordinator to comment verbally on the program and to participate another year. Employers expressed their satisfaction through comments such as these:

"We hate to see these people leave. It makes us appreciate how much we are missing in many of our regular employees."

"She's a wonderful worker. We're very fortunate to have her with us and we think the program is a fine thing."

"Whoever is responsible, we want to thank you for sending us such a wonderful worker."

Further evidence of employer reaction to the program is to be found in these facts: no teacher-employee had to be removed from his assigned position for any reason; nearly one-third of the employees were invited to work beyond the closing day of the program; nearly all employers have participated in the program for at least two years, and not one employer has indicated dissatisfaction with his workers or the program as a reason for not continuing in the program.

With such evidence from teachers and employers that this program is good in practice as well as good in theory, the college expects to continue and to further refine its program of cooperative work-experience for business teachers.

Cooperation with Business

(*Continued from page* 35)

bers to plan and carry on a program that will increase business knowledge and skills.

With regard to making community surveys, the twelfth-grade vocational business education students can be very helpful in making a follow-up study of graduates of the business education course. It will be a challenging experience for a twelfth grader to bring a form of inquiry (questionnaire) to a person who graduated from the high school business education curriculum the previous spring, and help him complete it. Students who have graduated from the business education department can generally offer valuable suggestions for improving the curriculum.

Business teachers, especially in larger cities, can take advantage of personnel bulletins and brochures that are often printed and used in individual companies. Very often large companies would be willing to give a certain number of such items to schools. How many teachers get down to the grass roots and secure an actual company manual? These materials are available; it is the teacher's responsibility to take advantage of them to enrich the course content.

By working with business and business organizations, business teachers can secure valuable assistance in developing a dynamic and flexible program which will capture the imagination and hold the interest of students.

Distributive Occupations

(*Continued from page* 34)

5. Repetition
6. Association of Spanish words with their English equivalent

If there is to be success in the task of teaching a foreign language, there must be a genuine interest on the part of the students. Such interest can be stimulated by using a varied number of motivation devices. In addition to the ones already mentioned, there are the following:

1. Films showing interesting sports in some Spanish speaking countries. Such a method is also educational and will deter the directing of many improper questions to the Spanish customer.
2. Organization of a Spanish club
3. Records in Spanish especially prepared for the teaching of Spanish
4. Display of articles with descriptions in Spanish
5. Blackboard and cardboard illustrations
6. Spanish movies and radio stations
7. Books, newspapers, and magazines
8. Free trips to other Spanish speaking countries

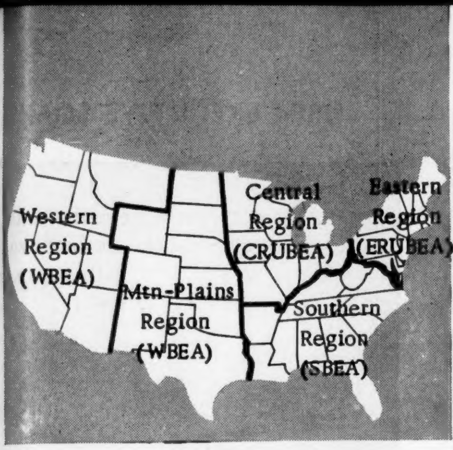
Organizing Spanish classes for salespeople should be a new challenge for any adult distributive education coordinator. Undoubtedly, the coordinator will encounter some difficulties but each new experience culminating in a successful presentation provides an inner sense of satisfaction.

Typewriting

(*Continued from page* 29)

the red combination brush is better for carbon copies.

2. The pencil-shaped erasers come in different sizes and with varying amounts of abrasive material. Most of them do fairly well with ink and original typewriting but some are not very good at erasing carbon.
3. Spun-glass typewriting erasers usually do the job quicker but are not entirely satisfactory for carbons.
4. The quality and kind of paper being used will determine the type of eraser to use.
5. Erasing shields and paper or cardboard erasing strips make it possible to do a neater erasing job. Clean hands and erasers are essential.
6. Erasing should not be done over the type basket unless absolutely necessary.
7. Erasing skill is one of the important qualifications of a good typist and should be developed to a high degree of skill and efficiency.



ubea

NATIONAL, REGIONAL, AND AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

The announcements of meetings, presentation of officers, and news of special projects of the United Business Education Association, UBEA Divisions, unified regional associations, and the affiliated state and local associations are presented in this section of BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM. UBEA is a Department of the National Education Association. The UBEA unified regional associations are autonomous groups operating within the framework of the national organization; each unified association is represented by its president at meetings of the UBEA Executive Board. Affiliated state and local associations cooperate with UBEA in promoting better business education; each affiliated association has proportional representation in the UBEA Representative Assembly.

UBEA REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Central Region of UBEA
Eastern Region of UBEA
Mountain-Plains Business Education Association
Southern Business Education Association
Western Business Education Association

UBEA AFFILIATED ASSOCIATIONS

Alabama Business Education Association
Arizona Business Educators Association
Arkansas Education Association, Business Education Section
California Business Education Association
Chicago Area Business Educators Association
Colorado Business Education Association
Connecticut Business Educators' Association
Delaware Commercial Teachers Association
Florida Business Education Association
Georgia Business Education Association
Greater Houston Business Education Association
Idaho Business Education Association
Illinois Business Education Association
Indiana State Teachers Association, Business Education Sections
Iowa Business Education Association
Kansas Business Teachers Association
Kentucky Business Education Association
Louisiana Business Education Association
Maryland Business Education Association
Michigan Business Education Association
Minnesota Business Education Association
Mississippi Business Education Association
Missouri State Teachers Association, Business Education Section
Montana Business Teachers Association
Nebraska Business Education Association
Nevada (Northern, Southern) Business Education Association
New Hampshire Business Educators Association
New Jersey Business Education Association
New Mexico Business Education Association
North Carolina Education Association, Department of Business Education
North Dakota Business Education Association
Ohio Business Teachers Association
Oklahoma Business Education Association
Oregon Business Education Association
Pennsylvania Business Educators Association
Philadelphia Business Teachers Association
St. Louis Area Business Educators Association
South Carolina Business Education Association
South Dakota Business Education Association
Tennessee Business Education Association
Texas Business Education Association
Tri-State Business Education Association
Utah Business Teachers Association
Virginia Business Education Association
Washington (Eastern, Central, and Western) Business Education Associations
West Texas Business Teachers Association
West Virginia Business Education Association
Wisconsin Business Education Association
Wyoming Business Education Association

Two Regional Meetings

Two of the UBEA regional associations have scheduled meetings for March 1960. The Central Region will meet with the Illinois Business Education Association in Springfield on March 26. The Governing Board of the Central Region will hold its semiannual meeting. James T. Blanford, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, is chairman of CRUBEA. Other regional representatives are Lorraine Missling, Nicolet High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; and Arnold Condon, University of Illinois, Urbana. State representatives to attend the meeting are selected by the state associations affiliated with UBEA.

The meeting for representatives in the Eastern Region is scheduled for New York City on March 25-26. The plans include a UBEA Representative Assembly and a session for members of the Governing Board. Lucy D. Medeiros, Central Falls High School, Central Falls, Rhode Island, is chairman of the Eastern Region of UBEA. Other regional representatives are Clarence Schwager, Greenwich High School, Greenwich, Connecticut; and Mary Ellen Oliverio, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York. Plans are under way for an invitational conference on a vital issue in business education on October 7-8, 1960.

UBEA Executive Board

The Executive Board of the United Business Education Association is featured on pages 40, 41, and 42. The membership of this dedicated group is composed of (a) the president, vice-president, treasurer, and immediate past-president of UBEA—the executive director is an ex-officio member; (b) the presidents of each of the four professional divisions of UBEA: Administrators Division, Research Foundation, National Association for Business Teacher Education, and the International Division; (c) three members from each of the five UBEA geographical regions; and (d) presidents of each of the UBEA unified regional associations.

The major functions of the Board are to (a) study and act upon policies affecting the Association which may be proposed by any member, (b) consider the recommendations of the Representative Assemblies and members; (c) encourage and assist volunteer workers within the regions in directing the work of the Association; (d) elect the officers of the Association and assist them in dispatching their duties; and (e) promote a dynamic program for better business education on all levels—local, state, regional, and national.

Spring and Summer Quarterly Topics Announced

The March 1960 issue of THE NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY will be devoted to research in business education and international business education. Vance T. Littlejohn, Woman's College, University of North Carolina, Greensboro; and William L. Winnett, San Francisco State College, California, are editor and associate editor respectively of the research section of the QUARTERLY. Ann Eckersley, Central Connecticut State College, New Britain, is editor of the international section.

In addition to articles on research in business education, the QUARTERLY will include the annual list of research studies in business education that were completed or underway in 1959.

"Oriental-Occidental Business Education" is the theme of the international section of this publication. Business education programs in Indonesia, Germany, and France are presented. An interesting report of the 1959 International Economic Course sponsored by the International Society for Business Education is included in this issue.

"Administering Business Education in the Sixties" has been selected as the theme for the Summer 1960 issue of THE NATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION QUARTERLY, to be published in May. Vernon Payne, North Texas State College, Denton, is editor and Kenneth J. Hansen, Colorado State College, Greeley, is assistant editor of this publication.

SERVING

BUSINESS

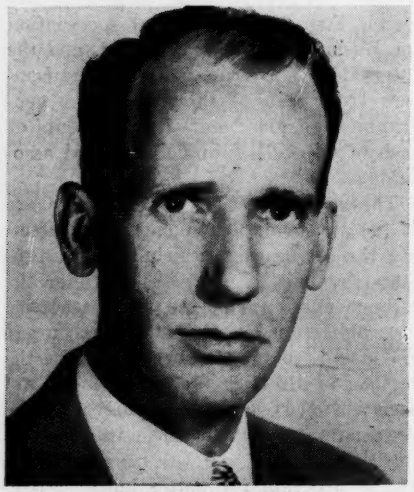
EDUCATION

In All Areas and At All Levels

International
National
Regional
State
Local

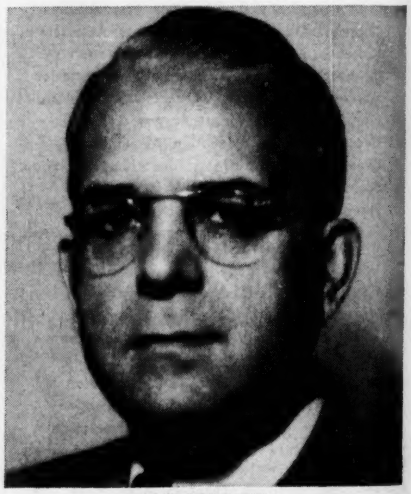
GLADYS BAHR
New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois, UBEA Vice-President

MILTON C. OLSON
State University, College of Education at Albany, New York, UBEA President



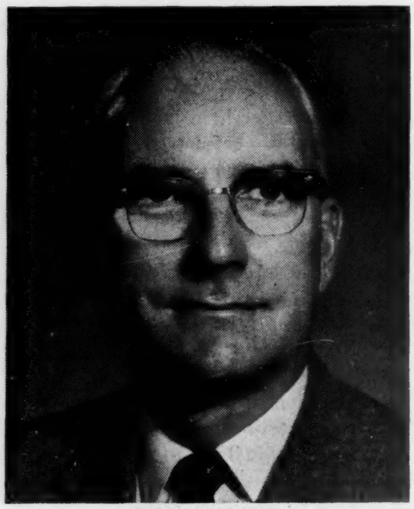
VERNON V. PAYNE
North Texas State College, Denton
UBEA Treasurer

VERNON A. MUSSELMAN
University of Kentucky, Lexington
UBEA Past-President



HOLLIS GUY
NEA Educational Center, Washington, D. C.
UBEA Executive Director

MARY ELLEN OLIVERIO
Teachers Coll., Columbia Univ., Research Div. Pres., 1959-61; Eastern Reg., 1959-62



DONALD TATE
Arizona State University, Tempe
International Division Pres., 1959-61

MARY ALICE WITTENBERG
Los Angeles City Schools, Administrators Div. Pres., 1959-61; Western Region, 1958-61

VERNON ANDERSON
Murray State College, Murray, Kentucky
Southern Region, 1958-61

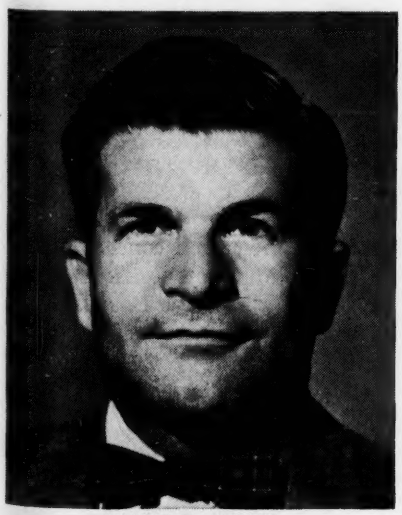
Z. S. DICKERSON
Madison College, Harrisonburg, Virginia
Southern Region, 1959-62

NORA GOAD
Stonewall Jackson High School, Charleston, West Virginia, Southern Region, 1957-60

RUSSELL J. HOSLER
The University of Wisconsin, Madison
NABTE President, 1959-61

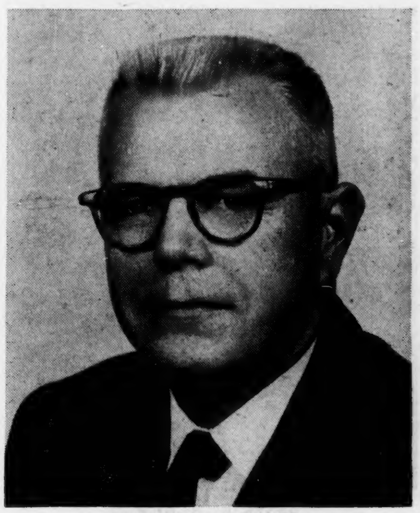
CLARENCE SCHWAGER
Greenwich High School, Connecticut
Eastern Region, 1959-61

LUCY D. MEDEIROS
Central Falls High School, Rhode Island
ERUBEA Chairman, 1959-60



RALPH C. ASMUS
Phoenix College, Phoenix, Arizona
WBEA President, 1959-60

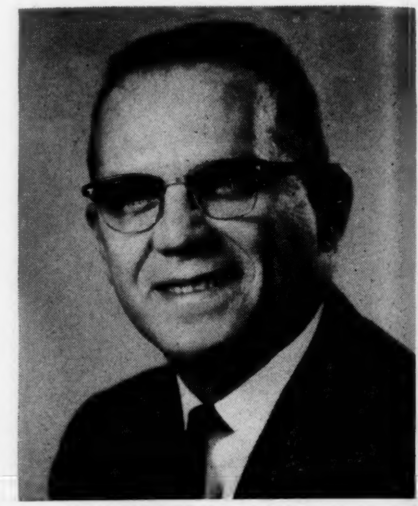
HULDA ERATH
Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette
SBEA President, 1960



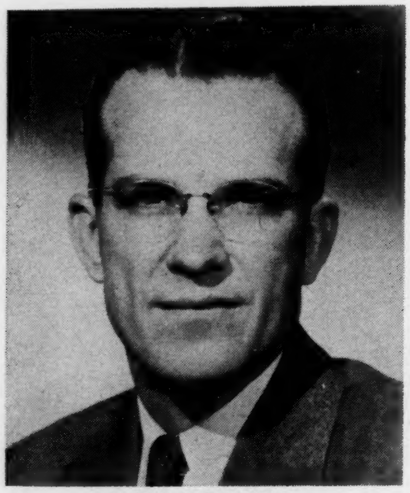
RUBEN J. DUMLER
St. Johns College, Winfield, Kansas
MPBEA President, 1959-60

LORRAINE MISSLING
Nicolet High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Central Region, 1958-61

ARNOLD CONDON
University of Illinois, Urbana
Central Region, 1959-62



JAMES T. BLANFORD
Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls
CRUBEA Chairman, 1959-60

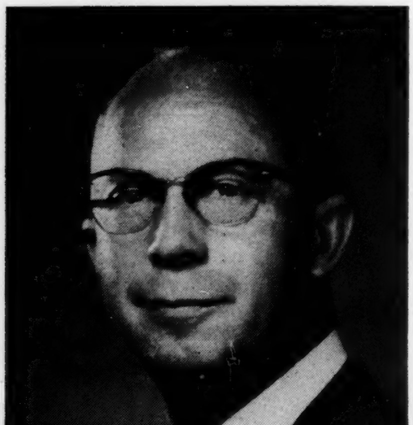


F. WAYNE HOUSE
University of Nebraska, Lincoln
Mountain-Plains Region, 1958-61

ESTHER KNUTSON
University of South Dakota, Vermillion
Mountain-Plains Region, 1957-60

GERALD PORTER
University of Oklahoma, Norman
Mountain-Plains Region, 1959-62

JESSE R. BLACK
University of Utah, Salt Lake City
Western Region, 1957-60



CLISBY EDLEFSEN
Boise Junior College, Boise, Idaho
Western Region, 1959-62

For information concerning the duties and composition of the UBEA Executive Board, please see the story on page 39.

UBEA Divisions Hold Annual Convention

The Joint Convention of the four UBEA Divisions (teacher education, research, international, and administrators) was held at the Conrad Hilton Hotel in Chicago, Illinois, on February 11-13. The convention opened on Thursday with the annual meeting of the UBEA International Division and U. S. Chapter of the International Society for Business Education. The theme of the program was "A More Effective U. S. Chapter of ISBE." Donald J. Tate, Arizona State University, president of the UBEA International Division and the U. S. Chapter of ISBE, moderated a forum on "Our Future in International Business Education." The panel included Herbert A. Tonne, New York University, and Wilhelmina Hebner, Hammond, Indiana.

Russell J. Hosler, The University of Wisconsin, president of the National Association for Business Teacher Education, presided at the annual convention of the association.

NABTE keynote addresses were given by Lindley J. Stiles, Dean, School of Education, The University of Wisconsin, and W. George Pinnell, Associate Dean, School of Business, Indiana University. John R. Emens, President, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, gave the NABTE distinguished lecture in business education at the Fellowship Luncheon on Friday. Five discussion groups rounded out the NABTE program.

The Administrators Division of UBEA meeting on Thursday featured the "NEA-UBEA Project on the Academically Talented Student." Mary Alice Wittenberg, Los Angeles City Schools, is president of the Administrators Division. The guest speaker was Charles E. Bish, Director of the NEA Project on the Academically Talented Student, Washington, D. C. His address was followed by a panel discussion. Four of the 25 participants in the recent NEA-UBEA Conference on Business Education for the Academically Talented Student participated in the panel. They are Harvey Andruss, Bloomsburg State College, Bloomsburg, Pennsylvania; Zenobia T. Liles, Georgia State Department of Education, Atlanta; Milton C. Olson, State University, College of Education at Albany; and S. J. Wanous, University of California, Los Angeles.

"Significant New Research in Business Education" was the theme for the UBEA Research Foundation's meeting. Persons reporting on significant research included Joseph Green, Fairleigh Dickinson University; Herbert M. Jelley, University of Cincinnati; Don Jester, Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney; and Eugene J. Kosy, Central Washington College. Mary Ellen Oliverio, Teachers College, Columbia University, was the presiding officer.

FBLA Continues Growth

Two hundred and one chapters of the Future Business Leaders of America have been chartered by the sponsoring organization, the United Business Education Association, during the past year. The number of chapters chartered is now approaching 2200.

The phenomenal growth of this organization for young adults preparing for careers in business indicates an interest on the part of many business teachers and students alike in achieving an adequate preparation for careers in business. Most of the 25 state chapters hold an annual convention at which time students from throughout their respective states meet for an exchange of ideas and participate in events ranging from spelling relays to the selection of a Mr. and Miss Future Business Leader.

The Morrison Hotel in Chicago has been selected as the site of the 1960 FBLA National Convention to be held June 12-14. Over 50,000 FBLA members will be represented by some 800 state delegates, chapter representatives, and sponsors.

FBLA was organized for the purpose of providing young adults with educational, vocational, and leadership experiences. Chapter sponsors encourage the improvement of scholarship, promote school loyalty, and strengthen the confidence of business students in themselves and their work.

FUTURE BUSINESS LEADER, the official magazine of the organization distributed to each member four times a year, provides information and material for use in promoting the purposes and activities of the organization. Word lists for spelling projects, problems on parliamentary procedure, and an article on standards in business education are regular features in the publication.

FBLA is on the Approved List of National Contests and Activities of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Award Nominations Received

Registration forms for the 1960 Professional Award in Business Education have begun to arrive in the UBEA Headquarters Office. The Award is available to the outstanding graduate of the business education curriculum at each teacher education college or university which is a member of the National Association for Business Teacher Education (the teacher education division of UBEA). The award includes a one-year membership in UBEA, copies of the January-May 1960 issues of the BUSINESS EDUCATION FORUM, a special binder for filing issues of the FORUM and an Award of Merit certificate. NABTE member schools have received an announcement of the program. Schools desiring membership in the National Association for Business Teacher Education should communicate with UBEA Headquarters Office for application forms and additional information concerning the awards program.

SOUTHERN REGION

South Carolina

The spring meeting of the South Carolina Education Association will be held on Friday, March 25, in Columbia. The general meetings will be in the auditorium of the School of Business Administration, University of South Carolina; the luncheon, with Frances Bowen in charge, will be held at the Russell House. Harold B. Gilbreth, head of the Department of Business and Economics at Winthrop College, is the featured speaker.

(South Carolina has 92 UBEA members —92 percent of 1959-60 goal.)

North Carolina

James L. White, East Carolina College, Greenville, North Carolina, will be the featured speaker at the spring meeting of the Department of Business Education, North Carolina Education Association. The meeting will be at the Battery Park Hotel in Asheville on March 18. Dr. White's topic is "Excellence in Business Education: A Five-Year Plan."

Officers of the association are Carrie Hickman, Cramerton School, Cramerton, president; Mrs. Jacob Carter, Albemarle High School, Albemarle, vice-president; and Mrs. Paul Clark, Ayden High School, Ayden, secretary and treasurer.

(North Carolina has 150 UBEA members —107 percent of 1959-60 goal.)

Please turn to page 46 for additional news items

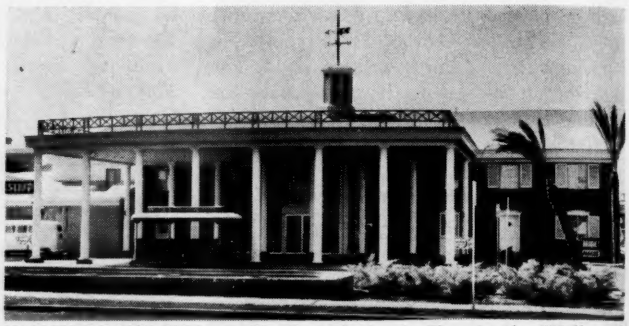
The Western News Exchange

Published by the Western Business Education Association, a Region of UBEA

Volume 5 — March 1960 — Number 2

WBEA Convention in Phoenix

Western business teachers will be heading for the "Valley of the Sun" for Easter this year. Opportunities to visit acquaintances, relax in the sun, and develop an insight into the "Challenges of the 60's" are all part of the Western Business Education Association program, April 14-16, at the Ramada Inn in Phoenix. WBEA's meeting this year is being held concurrently with the meeting of the Arizona Business Education Association. Exhibits, swimming, a good old-fashioned chuck wagon dinner, and attendance prizes will all add to a program staffed by outstanding business education leaders.



VALLEY OF THE SUN . . . The Ramada Inn in Phoenix, the "Valley of the Sun," is the site of the 1960 Western Business Education Association Convention.

Convention Program

Theme: *The Challenges of the 60's*

Thursday, April 14, 1960

9:00 a.m. — WBEA Executive Board Meeting

2:00 p.m. — UBEA Representative Assembly
Registration, Ramada Inn
Exhibits (available throughout Convention)

7:00 p.m. — Opening Session
Speaker: ROBERT E. SLAUGHTER, Vice-President, McGraw-Hill Book Co.
Topic: "A Businessman's View of the Next Decade."

Friday, April 15, 1960

7:00 a.m. — Breakfast, Pi Omega Pi

9:00 a.m. — General Session
Speaker: HAMDEN L. FORKNER, Professor Emeritus, Teachers College, Columbia University
Topic: "Challenging Thoughts About the Next Decade in Business Education"

10:15 a.m. — Bookkeeping Session
Speaker: E. C. MCGILL, Professor of Business Admin., Utah State University
Topic: "The Next Decade in Bookkeeping—What Will It Bring?"
Typewriting Session
Speaker: JERRY ROBINSON, Associate Editor, South-Western Publishing Co.
Topic: "The Next Decade in Typewriting—What Will It Bring?
Supervisors and Consultants Session
Presiding: MARY ALICE WITTENBERG, Supervisor of Business Education, Los Angeles City Schools (President, Administrators Division, UBEA)
Topic: "Current Supervisory Problems"

12:00 noon — General Luncheon Session
Speaker: (to be announced)
Topic: Good Friday Devotional Service

1:00 p.m. — Arizona Business Education Association Business Meeting
Presiding: EDWARD Y. PALMER, President, Arizona Business Education Assoc.

4:00-5:30 p.m. — Sightseeing Tours of Phoenix and Scottsdale

6:30 p.m. — Chuck Wagon Dinner (South Mountain Park)
Presiding: DONALD TATE, Professor of Business Education, Arizona State University (President, United States Chapter of the International Society for Business Education and the International Division of UBEA)

Saturday, April 16

7:30 a.m. — UBEA 10,000 Club Breakfast

9:00 a.m. — General Business Session
Speaker: VERNON MUSSELMAN, Chairman, Department of Business Education, University of Kentucky
Topic: "The Next Decade in General Business—What Will It Bring?"
Shorthand-Office Machines Session
Speaker: DOROTHY TRAVIS, Associate Professor, Department of Business Education, University of North Dakota
Topic: "The Next Decade in Shorthand-Office Machines — What Will It Bring?"

10:30 a.m. — Panel Session
Topic: "Current and Proposed Activities of the UBEA-DPE Commission for Business Education"
Panel: HAMDEN L. FORKNER
DOROTHY VEON, Professor of Education, Pennsylvania State University
ROBERT SLAUGHTER
VERNON MUSSELMAN
E. C. MCGILL

12:00 Noon — Closing Luncheon Session

WBEA Officers

President	RALPH C. ASMUS, Phoenix, Arizona
Vice-President	EDITH T. SMITH, Portland, Oregon
Secretary	IRIS IRONS, Salt Lake City, Utah
Treasurer	RUTH A. PAGET, Carson City, Nevada

FBLA forum

For Sponsors and Advisers of FBLA Chapters

Preparing Effective Exhibits

Although effective exhibits are one of the best media FBLA chapters can use in promoting their activities and school-community relations, much preplanning is necessary. It is important for persons in the community to be constantly informed about the programs being carried on. A number of opportunities are available to FBLA chapters to get this story across in exhibit form. Among these are:

1. Meetings of special community groups such as PTA, women's clubs, and service clubs
2. Events open to the public such as American Education Week; local, county, and state fairs; and Business-Industry-Education Days
3. Orientation programs for new students
4. School assemblies or general exhibits of school programs
5. Store windows and display rooms
6. Booths or show-case displays in public buildings such as the county court house, the city hall, and libraries.

A definite theme for the exhibit should be established—a theme based upon what the exhibit is to say to the viewer. Topics that could be selected for an exhibit are the promotion of the purposes of FBLA, special activities or projects, methods used to achieve better business education programs, and a demonstration of the benefits derived from FBLA.

Exhibits offer a variety of methods to present a public relations story. Among the most common types of exhibits are (a) display panels—posters, photographs, translucencies, literature, and slogans; (b) floor displays—models, dioramas, and panoramas; (c) motion pictures, filmstrips, and slides; (d) testing devices and quizzes; and (e) machines and equipment.

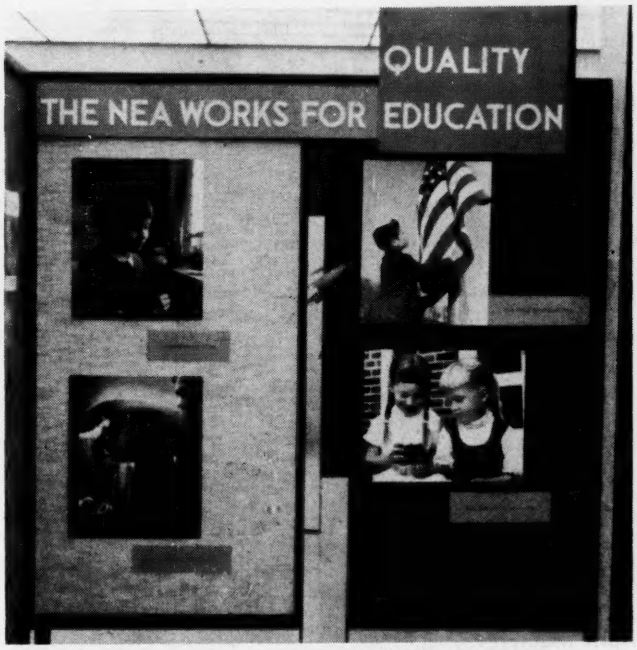
Unless the exhibit attracts the attention of the passerby, it will be of little value. Some basic considerations in designing the display include:

1. Keep the design simple—decide what message is to be put across and then reduce it to its simplest terms; stick to the point and do not over-elaborate on it.
2. Arrange the points being made in a logical or psychological sequence.
3. Methods used to attract attention to one feature of the exhibit should not distract attention from other features.
4. Choose a design that keeps the eye moving from one part of the exhibit to the next by placement of lettering and illustrations, change of color, abstract design in the background, or some other device.
5. Use color contrasts to point up the message, but use them sparingly.
6. Large lettering in a simple message will carry farther than paragraphs in small lettering.
7. Place the exhibit so that it is near eye level.

"Extras" that can transform a mediocre exhibit into an excellent exhibit include:

1. *Lighting.* A spot light set to side-light an exhibit will produce a greater illusion of depth; more elaborate lighting includes shadow-box type exhibits, slides set into a panel, and moving areas of light. A careful use of colored lights can attract attention to the exhibit.
2. *Personnel.* Persons to "man" the exhibit can dramatize the message; this is distinct from an attendant who answers questions.
3. *Mobiles.* Turntable bases, motorized figures, a series of slides projected in sequence, or motion pictures are means of providing motion.
4. *Third-dimension.* Mounting parts to stand out from a wall-panel type of exhibit provides a third dimension to make the exhibit more realistic.
5. *Size.* Extremely large size attracts attention and makes the message understandable from greater distances; a huge blow-up of a photograph will be remembered longer than a series of small ones.
6. *Viewers.* Keep in mind the persons who will be seeing the exhibit; make it appealing to those persons.

A good exhibit need not be expensive. It should be lightweight, durable, and easy to assemble. With adequate preplanning to determine the audience, what is to be said, and how it is to be said, an exhibit can attract a lot of favorable publicity for an FBLA chapter and for the school.



SIMPLE THEME . . . Thirty-two photographs mounted on eight panels located in the lobby at the NEA Center carry out a simple theme. The four photographs on this panel imply that quality education includes education for self-realization, civic responsibility, economic efficiency, and human relations.

CALENDAR

National Meetings

Future Business Leaders of America, Chicago, Illinois, June 12-14

Regional Meetings

Eastern Region, UBEA, New York City, March 25-26

Central Region, UBEA, Springfield, Illinois, March 26

Western Business Education Association, Phoenix, Arizona, April 14-16

Mountain-Plains Business Education Association, Denver, Colorado, June 17-19

March Meetings

Alabama Business Education Association, Birmingham, March 18

Chicago Area Business Educators Association, March 26

Georgia Business Education Association, Atlanta, March 18

Illinois Business Education Association, Springfield, March 25-26

Michigan Business Education Association, Grand Rapids, March 24-26

Mississippi Business Education Association, Jackson, March 18

North Carolina Education Association, Department of Business Education, Asheville, March 18

Oregon Business Education Association, Eugene, March 17

Virginia Business Education Association, Roanoke, March 25-26

April Meetings

Arizona Business Education Association, Phoenix, April 14-16

California Business Education Association, Asilomar, April 9-11

Chicago Area Business Educators Association, April 23

Florida Business Education Association, Miami, April 22

Idaho Business Education Association, Boise, April 22-23

Kansas Business Teachers Association, Hutchinson, April 1-2

Kentucky Business Education Association, Louisville, April 21

Missouri State Teachers Association, Business Education Section, Columbia, April 9

Nebraska Business Education Association, Kearney, April 30

Ohio Business Teachers Association, Akron, April 29-30

Pennsylvania Business Educators Association, Bloomsburg, April 30; Indiana, April 23

St. Louis Area Business Educators Association, April 30

Tennessee Business Education Association, Nashville, April 8

Washington (Eastern) Business Education Association, Spokane, April 8

Washington (Central) Business Education Association, Yakima, April 16

IN ACTION SECTION *(Continued from page 43)*

WESTERN REGION

California

Sponsored by the executive council of the California Business Education Association and organized by the executive officers, the Fund for the Advancement of Business Education became a corporation on November 8, 1959. The corporation was formed "to receive and maintain a fund or funds of real or personal property . . . to use and apply the whole or any part of the income therefrom and the principal thereof exclusively for educational purposes in the field of business and economic education."

This now makes it possible for a legally sanctioned California business education group to be the recipient and dispenser of tax advantage contributions intended for the betterment of conditions in the areas of business and economic education. The fund will be used to support research and development of new teaching materials, financial assistance for high school scholars seeking a college business or economic education, underwriting of youth groups associated with business and economic endeavors, and the over-all upgrading of the business education profession.

The initial governors of the corporation include Fred S. Cook, Lura Lynn Straub, John H. Linn, Virginia Sprague, Howbert B. Bonnett, and Louis J. Gentile, with the additional appointments by the CBEA president of George W. Madison, Milburn D. Wright, William Himstreet, Maurice Crawford, and Gervase Eckenrod. As the governing officers of CBEA are rotated in office, the governing board of the Fund will in turn rotate since governors receive their appointments either by virtue of the offices they hold in CBEA or through appointment of the CBEA president.

The annual convention of the California Business Education Association will be held at Asilomar, April 9, 10, and 11. Cochairmen Bernard Revoir of Monterey Peninsula College, and Alvin Beckett of San Jose State College are building the program around a series of "IF" Clinics. *(California has 491 UBEA members—98.2 percent of 1959-60 goal.)*

Oregon

"Implications of the 60's" is the theme for the annual spring meeting of the Oregon Business Education Association. The meeting, held in conjunction with the Oregon Education Association Convention, will be at the New Heathman Hotel, Portland, on March 17-19.
(Oregon has 195 UBEA members—84.7 percent of 1959-60 goal.)

Idaho

April 22-23 have been selected as the dates of the annual convention of the Idaho Business Education Association to be held in Boise. S. Joseph DeBrum, San Francisco State College, will be the guest speaker. Nell Iddings, Borah High School, Boise, will also speak to the group. Membership in the state association has reached an all-time high—20 percent above last year.
(Idaho has 35 UBEA members—77.7 percent of 1959-60 goal.)

CENTRAL REGION

Chicago Area

Lois Payne, educational consultant for International Business Machines Corporation, will be the guest speaker for the March 19 meeting of the Chicago Area Business Education Association. Her talk will highlight progress in automation and its effect on business activities. CABEA meetings are held monthly at Marshall Field & Company.

MOUNTAIN-PLAINS REGION

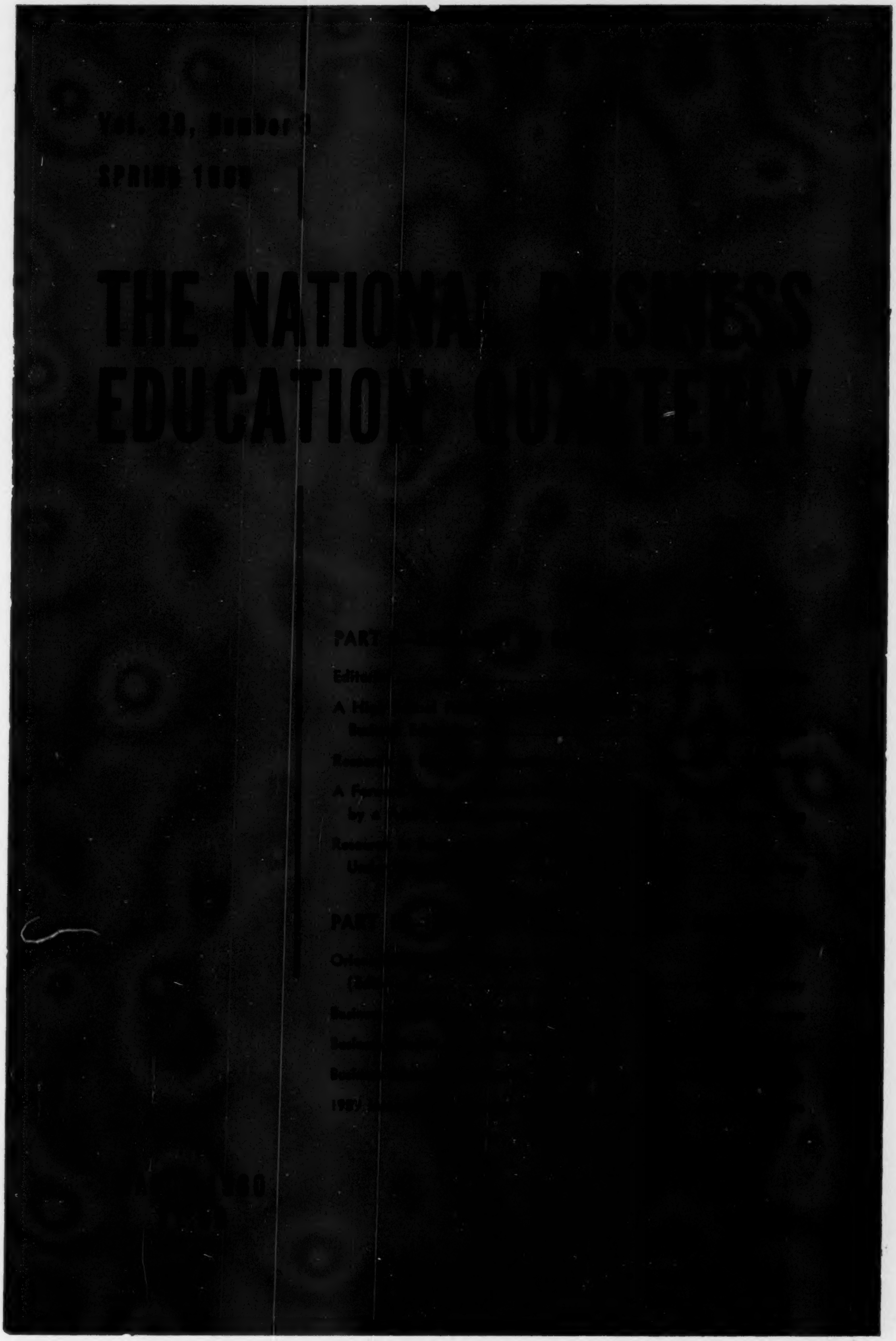
Nebraska

The seventh annual Nebraska Business Education Association convention will be held on the campus of the Nebraska State Teachers College, Kearney, on April 30. Dorothy Travis, Central High School and University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, will be the guest speaker.

Officers of the association are Eloise Jacoby, president; Luella VanVleck, 1st vice-president; Shirley Anderson, 2nd vice-president; Joyce Roll, recording secretary; Elizabeth Sack, corresponding secretary; and Wilma Sawyer, treasurer.

New Mexico

Frank Gilmer, Valley High School, Albuquerque, was elected president of the New Mexico Business Education Association on October 22. Others elected include G. C. Thompson, Carlsbad High School, Carlsbad, vice-chairman; Eva Glaese, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, secretary; and Orlena J. Hebel, Taos High School, Taos, treasurer. Mrs. Glaese was chosen as UBEA Delegate to the Mountain-Plains Business Education Association Representative Assembly; Bert Everett, Valley High School, Albuquerque, was selected as the alternate delegate.
(New Mexico has 44 UBEA members—88 percent of 1959-60 goal.)



The Spring Issue of *The National Business Education Quarterly* is a professional service of the United Business Education Association. The subscription rate to libraries is three dollars a year. The UBEA comprehensive membership service includes a subscription to the *Quarterly* and a year's membership in the four UBEA Professional Divisions (institutions excepted). Many back issues of the *Quarterly* are available at the single copy rate. Write to the United Business Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C., concerning the *Quarterly*.

ffer
or-
in

ice
und
ree